

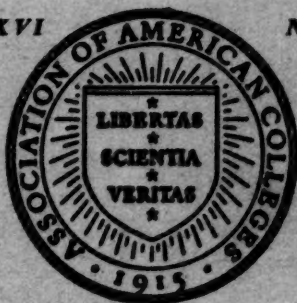
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VOLUME XXXVI

NUMBER 2



CORPORATION GIVING
CULTURAL DIVERSITY
PROFITABLE PUBLIC RELATIONS

MAY, 1950

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The Association of American Colleges was organized in 1906 by the merger of the American Association of Colleges and Universities and the Association of American Universities. Its purpose is to promote the highest standards of college education in the United States and to foster cooperation among the various types of higher education.

The Association is composed of representatives of all types of higher education in the United States, including liberal arts colleges, universities, and technical institutions. It holds annual meetings and publishes a bulletin which contains information about its activities and the work of its member institutions.

The Association's work is carried on through its various committees and commissions, which are charged with the study of important educational problems and the making of recommendations to the member institutions. Its efforts are directed toward the improvement of college education in every respect, from the curriculum to the standards of faculty and the quality of student life.

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The BULLETIN is published four times a year—in March, May, October and December. Its emphasis is on description and exposition, not primarily on criticism or controversy. The March issue regularly carries the Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the Association. Leaders in the college world contribute to every issue.

Annual Subscription Rates: Regular \$3.00; to members of Association colleges special rates are offered: individual subscriptions, \$1.00; ten or more club subscriptions, mailed in one package for distribution at the college, 50 cents each. Address the Association of American Colleges, 726 Jackson Place, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

EDITORIAL NOTES

BUILDERS OF AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES is the first volume in a series of three designed to present the inaugural addresses of college and university presidents. It traces the significant trends in higher education through the thoughts of influential men occupying the presidency of privately controlled colleges and universities. The volume, edited by David Andrew Weaver, will be helpful as a reference work in college administration. Shurtleff College Press, Alton, Illinois, 1950.

THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN, A HISTORY by Merle Curti and Vernon Carstensen covers rather completely the story of the first century of a great state university. The well-written two volumes portray vividly the struggles of the founding of the university, the problems faced and met successfully throughout the years and inspired accounts of the presidents and faculty members who made the university great. Noteworthy has been the freedom from political and other interference that might have crippled the progress of the university. University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, Wisconsin.

PI DELTA EPSILON announces a news story and editorial competition open to students in colleges and universities having chapters of this journalism fraternity. The editorials and news stories must have been written by an undergraduate during the academic year 1949-50. Further information may be obtained from Professor Michael Radock, Director of Public Relations, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio.

SAN ANDRES UNIVERSITY, La Paz, Bolivia, announces a summer session for North American students from July 3 to August 12. All candidates must have a working knowledge of Spanish. Further information and applications for registration can be obtained from Dr. Harvey L. Johnson, Department of Romance Languages, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.

THE CONFERENCE BOARD OF ASSOCIATED RESEARCH COUNCILS COMMITTEE ON INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGE OF PERSONS announces that agreements have been signed with Australia, Egypt, Iran, Turkey and India, but the programs have not yet been inaugurated. Applications for the United Kingdom, Belgium and Luxembourg, France, Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, Burma, the Philippines, New Zealand and Norway for the academic year 1951-52 will be accepted by the Conference Board Committee in late summer and early autumn. Additional information may be secured from the Executive Secretary of the Committee on International Exchange of Persons, Conference Board of Associated Research Councils, 2101 Constitution Avenue, Washington 25, D. C.

OUT OF MY LATER YEARS by Albert Einstein is a collection of essays written since 1936 by the great physicist on political and social problems as well as science. Philosophical Library, New York.

AUTUMN LEAVES by Andre Gide, translated from the French by Elsie Pell, is a collection of reminiscences and thoughts by the great French writer and tells also about many of his contemporaries. Philosophical Library, New York.

REFLECTIONS OF A PHYSICIST by Percy Williams Bridgman is a group of the non-technical writings of this eminent Nobel prize winner in physics, 1946, also of some of his papers published for the first time. Philosophical Library, New York.

DEMOCRACY'S COLLEGE, HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE LOCAL COMMUNITY, by John S. Diekhoff is a well-written study of the present and future of the local public college. Harper & Brothers, New York.

ENDS AND MEANS IN EDUCATION: A MIDCENTURY APPRAISAL by Theodore Brameld is a discussion of education as it is today and as it might be in the future. Harper & Brothers, New York.

COMPREHENSIVE EXAMINATIONS IN A PROGRAM OF GENERAL EDUCATION compiled by the Board of Examiners of Michigan State College describes their experiences with their own examination program. The Michigan State College Press, East Lansing, Michigan.

EMPLOYMENT OUTLOOK FOR ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS has been published by the U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, New York Regional Office, 341 Ninth Avenue, New York 1, N. Y.

RINEHART & COMPANY, INCORPORATED, has issued three new attractive paper-bound editions of classics: PERE GORIOT, Honoré De Balzac; WUTHERING HEIGHTS, Emily Bronte; GREAT SHORT STORIES FROM THE WORLD'S LITERATURE, edited by Charles Neider.

UNIVERSITIES OF THE WORLD OUTSIDE U. S. A. edited in 1950 by M. M. Chambers, is an excellent directory of information about more than 2,000 institutions of higher learning in 82 countries. This is the first time such a complete handbook of this kind has been done. American Council on Education, Washington 6, D. C.

FINANCES AND MORAL LEADERSHIP

CHARLES SEYMOUR

PRESIDENT, YALE UNIVERSITY

IT IS clear that the independent educational institutions of the country are passing through a period of crisis which will not be resolved at an early date. We must face frankly the questions whether their very existence is not threatened, at least as institutions capable out of their own resources to serve the national welfare. The crisis in its more obvious aspects is financial. The rate of return on invested endowment over the past twenty years has grievously diminished. It takes a lot of new endowment to make up for this. As the Red Queen in *Alice in Wonderland* suggested, you have to run awfully fast to stay in the same place. Nor can we longer rely upon the expectation of the large capital gifts, which in earlier years enabled us to enlarge our national service. We have raised our rates of tuition to a level beyond which we should threaten the quality of our student body. No principle is more firmly established than that the doors of our universities are open to students of ability and ambition regardless of their financial status.

While our traditional income struggles to rise, educational costs have mounted to a dizzy height with appalling speed. We operate, each of us, a physical establishment the expense of which, in terms of labor and maintenance, is comparable to such items in an industrial enterprise. But our output has no direct selling value which can be raised to meet increasing costs.

If, as some of our business-minded alumni advise, we enter upon a program of economies in the strictly educational field, we defeat the very purpose of our existence. That purpose involves the teaching of the rising generation of Americans and its fulfillment depends upon the quality of our teaching staff. Even now our faculties are notoriously underpaid. What does it profit us to balance our budget, if in so doing we make it impossible for our teachers to subsist!

Furthermore, we must remember that the educational process in teaching and research, if it is to serve the community, must

NOTE: Address delivered at the *Yale Daily News* banquet, February 8, 1950.

be dynamic and exploratory. When it is static, it becomes arid. It is our business not merely to discover new things but new ways of approaching their value. Such restless exploration is costly. Consider the development of our scientific laboratories during the past half century, and as a result their contribution to the nation and community. But every new discovery entails fresh educational cost.

Or take our library, at the very center of our educational system. It exists to make available to our students the learning of the past, constantly accumulating as today becomes yesterday. The cost of housing and of cataloging, of circulation and of reference assistance, is becoming astronomical. To meet it today means a raid upon the resources of our teaching departments, for the very service of which the library exists. How shall we cut the cost without cruel injury to our educational fabric? President Hadley used to tell the story of his visit to a German library and his inquiry of the librarian as to the size of the collection. "Three hundred and three thousand books," was the answer. "And all but one are locked up in this building, and I know where that one is and I am going to get it back tomorrow." This is economical library practice.

But the crisis faced by the independent educational institution is much more than financial. It involves nothing less than the moral position held by them in the entire educational structure of the nation. The greatest temptation among the older, free universities, always has been and still is, our comfortable urge toward self-complacency. The fact of our independence and all that goes with it; our freedom to teach what subjects we will as we will; to restrict the size of our student body and the range of our academic activities; all this, in the historical past, has put us in a favored position of special leadership. We must be careful that we do not forget our obligations, for with that forgetfulness would disappear any claim to retain even a share in that leadership.

As one travels about the United States today, and comes into contact with the great state universities, the outstanding impression is their sensitivity to the needs of the community. Of course, the friendly cynic will point out that this sensitivity is not so much reflection of academic responsibility as a prudent

approach to the finance committee of the legislature; and others less friendly complain that the sacrosanct control of the university is thrown into the moronic marketplace with the certainty that the democratization of education is to be matched by its dilution.

It is not my business tonight especially to emphasize the magnificent services of the state universities; but it is important to note that they have been very great and that, by and large, instead of being controlled by politics these institutions have applied a good bit of education to the politicians; that their contributions to the higher learning are of the first order; that their influence in the educational world is steadily increasing. This is due in part, perhaps, to the vast budgets of which in recent years they have disposed. But only in part. They have won their position by reason of their sense of responsibility for the welfare of the community.

The privately endowed institution carries just as heavy obligation to the public, and if it does not fulfill it, will surely disappear. It is a deep satisfaction that the YALE DAILY NEWS has brought to us here tonight, leaders of five* private institutions who have vigorously and eloquently expressed the responsibility for public service that is carried by them. The President of the oldest of these universities, has been the champion of an educational philosophy, which in his own words is "moving towards the social equality of all useful labor."

It is equally significant that the President of the youngest of our sisters here represented, the institution which together with our own Sheffield Scientific School, first cast the mantle of academic respectability over the practical and the useful subjects of the curriculum—that the head of this institution should have so vividly set forth the cultural purpose of education. We must educate, as he puts it in his inaugural address, not only for professional, but also for social responsibility. Science and technology are not merely essential to health, prosperity and security. They give you and me, says President Killian, "more freedom to be socially responsible citizens; to be good neighbors; to pursue the good life. . . . No college in a world of turmoil can shirk the

* Harvard, Columbia, Princeton, Massachusetts Institute of Technology and Johns Hopkins University.

responsibility of preparing a man to be a citizen as well as to make a living."

There is implicit in President Killian's reference to the "good life" the suggestion of what seems to me the highest type of service which the university can contribute—the pursuit of the higher humanism. Our conception of educational responsibility cannot be limited to the preparation of students for technical or professional power or, more broadly speaking, for their social obligations as citizens. We are vitally interested that they should be in the noblest sense humane citizens, appreciative of beauty and passionate in their devotion to truth. For these are the essentials of civilization.

The independent institution, given the adequate resources, is in a favored position for directing its educational process, whether scientific or humanistic, toward this goal of cultural responsibility. And I think the endowed universities and colleges of the land can look back with pride as they survey the careers of their graduates. If that goal is kept clearly in mind and we follow our course with determined and unflagging stride, we need not fear the loss of our position in the educational world of America. The great state institutions can offer much which lies beyond our competitive efforts; but we have our own peculiar values, the disappearance of which would be the nation's loss. We must be careful to put them at the nation's service.

The resolution of the financial crisis depends upon the status of our moral leadership. If we prove our worth our freedom will not disappear. There will be areas of education so expensive that we must face the alternative of complete withdrawal or acceptance of financial grants from government. The field of medical education is an obvious example. Should we take the subsidy it would be on the basis, as during the war, of responding to the nation's need.

This is a special field. There may be some others. But if the principle of government grants for the general academic purpose of the free universities were accepted, our freedom would certainly be crippled. Once we became dependent upon such subsidies, obviously our independence would disappear. We should lose the quality which makes our contribution valuable.

This must not happen. And I have complete faith that, if our

moral leadership is maintained, the support which we require will be forthcoming from private resources and that it will be adequate in the degree that we fulfill our responsibility.

We carry further obligation. In a democratic community, a large aspect of that obligation lies in the education of public opinion in the standards of value. This is not a function that can be left entirely to our alumni, although in the long run it will be their influence as citizens which will go far to determine those standards. The independent universities cannot remain aloof from the mind of the nation. If they should, like the medieval monasteries, they would disappear, outworn remnants of an age that is past. We must thus address ourselves to the public in terms which have meaning to the public. For when we talk it is not so much ourselves as our listeners that count. It is reported that President Eliot on returning from the service which celebrated his ninetieth birthday was asked by his wife, who was unable to attend, how it had gone. "Well," he said, "I like Dr. Frothingham's sermon, but not his prayer." "Yes, my dear," was Mrs. Eliot's reply, "but remember, he wasn't talking to you."

The founding fathers of the six institutions represented here tonight whether in the 17th, 18th or 19th centuries, were all chiefly concerned with two principles: the one the principle of service, the other of freedom. These two principles have been cross-woven throughout our history. The first has been continually broadened from the original concept of training youth for public service in church and civil state; but the essence of the principle is always the same. In the early days the freedom which was sought was from clerical and denominational control; today we are concerned lest a dependence upon governmental benefactions result in just as serious a loss of educational freedom.

The principles of service and freedom are interdependent. We cannot serve the community as we might and cannot carry forward our special mission unless we are free to do so in our own way. But that freedom is granted us only that we may use it for the benefit of the community. The price of freedom is service.

COLLEGE INVESTMENTS IN THE REAL ESTATE BUSINESS

CHARLES F. PHILLIPS

PRESIDENT, BATES COLLEGE

THE purpose of this brief note is to raise a voice in opposition to the present trend for colleges to enter the real estate business.

At last January's meetings of the Association of American Colleges there seemed to be general agreement that colleges should not operate business enterprises off the college campus. The majority of college presidents with whom I talked, as well as a preliminary report from the Commission on Colleges and Industry, recognized the dangers of a trend in this direction. It is unfair to private business, the majority said, for us to operate a machine tool firm for example, in competition with firms who must pay income taxes. Moreover, they continued, if we persist in this trend, we may check the increasing financial support of private corporations to our colleges—support which we now seek and badly need. Finally, they concluded, this trend may even create so many enemies for us that our tax-exempt status will be subject to attack.

But at these same January meetings, voices were raised in support of recent large investments on the part of colleges in real estate. In fact, there seemed to be as much approval of this trend, as there was disapproval of the trend to operate going businesses.

It is not difficult to understand why so many of us distinguish between real estate investments and business operations. For centuries colleges and universities throughout the world have held real estate. Why shouldn't they continue to add to their holdings?

Actually, however, there are significant differences between the typical, traditional real estate holdings of colleges and some of those acquired in more recent years. Traditionally, (1) the majority of college real estate investments were the result of gifts or a finance committee policy of picking up a few pieces of real estate as they became available, usually located in the same

community as the college or in nearby communities; (2) when real estate purchases were made, the necessary money came from endowment funds; and (3) the firm selling the real estate to the college was not using this technique for tax-saving or income-producing purposes. Although exceptions can be found to all three of these statements, they still represent normal past practice.

The trend concerning which this note is directed violates all three of these elements of traditional practice. In one well-known example of this trend, the former practice of picking up a few pieces of local real estate, was replaced by purchases scattered in such cities as Boston, Syracuse, Akron, Harrisburg, Reading, San Antonio and Dallas.

Likewise, some of the recent arrangements have involved far more than endowment funds. When the college referred to in the preceding paragraph bought over 16 million dollars' worth of real estate its total endowment was less than 7 million dollars. What actually happened was that several millions of dollars were borrowed to finance the transaction. It was not a case of investing endowment; it was a case of going into the real estate business.

Without pointing to the real estate transactions of any specific college, it is easy to see how a business company can make a financial gain by selling its real estate to a tax-exempt college. Of course, even if a company sells its real estate to a non-college organization it may deduct its rental payments as a legitimate cost of doing business. What is significant to the company in the sale of real estate to a college which pays no taxes on its income, is that it may receive a larger payment for its property or be required to pay a smaller rent than would otherwise be the case. In brief, the business firm gains because of the college's tax-exempt status.

Some may reply to the foregoing by saying: "Well, the differences between the traditional real estate investment program and the one you are condemning are nothing but a matter of degree." This is true: but black changes into white by a matter of degree, and yet black and white are different! Likewise, the current trend concerning real estate investments is different from the traditional practice.

In brief, some of the recent investments by colleges in real estate differ in marked degree from their traditional investments in this area. These differences in degree are so great that they have actually placed some colleges in business—the real estate business. A continuation of this trend will bring colleges face to face with all the disadvantages that may accrue from their operation of any other off-campus business. The tax-exempt privilege which we have is so great that we should not put it in jeopardy.

A GROWING TREND IN CORPORATION SUPPORT FOR PRIVATE PHILANTHROPY

ARNAUD C. MARTS
PRESIDENT, MARTS AND LUNDY, INC.

THERE has been a growing trend in the past ten years on the part of corporation management to make grants and gifts out of corporation income to the support of the educational, religious, character-building, health and welfare agencies in America.

In 1938, the U. S. Treasury Department reported that approximately \$27,000,000 showed up in the tax returns of corporations as gifts to such privately financed agencies. In 1946, the latest year for which Treasury Department figures are available, corporation gifts had risen to \$213,872,000.

In 1948, these same gifts are estimated conservatively to have reached \$250,000,000.

Last year over 750 corporations made gifts to a certain national religious agency with an inter-denominational program of service.

Last year one utility corporation announced a gift of \$175,000 to the Community Fund of its city.

During the present year, 1950, one industrial corporation announced a grant of a million dollars to an institution of higher education, probably the highest single gift to education or philanthropy ever made by a corporation.

Recent studies of public opinion show that a very substantial majority of corporation stockholders approve corporation gifts to philanthropy.

It is interesting to note the wide variations in the gifts of corporations of different classifications. Referring again to the latest official Treasury Department figures (for 1946) the average corporation gift that year to private philanthropy was \$435.45. Gifts were made by 491,151 corporations. But the manufacturing industries revealed an average gift of \$1,136.37, the highest of any classification; while the lowest of any classification was an average gift of \$129.12 from corporations in the fields of finance, insurance and real estate.

The Treasury Department does not break down its statistics on this subject to reveal what categories of private philanthropic

agencies receive the most corporation support. At the present time the only way in which that information can be obtained is by the sampling method. Recently the National Industrial Conference Board has made known the results of a study it has made of this matter. Their study covered the giving record of "79 of the 100 largest manufacturing corporations in the United States" and they report their findings as follows:

Community Chests received the largest total of gifts from these 79 corporations. The median gift to Community Chests was \$44,858. The Red Cross and the hospitals received substantial support and gifts to colleges and universities increased over gifts by the same corporations to those institutions in 1948.

"Gifts to these institutions which at one time represented an exception to corporation giving, are now generally made in accordance with the direct benefit theory. These contributions are to be distinguished from corporate funds to colleges for the purpose of research. These latter are generally charged as a business expense rather than a charitable donation.

"Gifts to colleges and universities range from \$100 to \$235,000, with the median coming to \$7,600."

Under the present Federal law, a corporation may give to philanthropic agencies 5% of its net income before taxes.

State laws vary considerably in their attitudes toward corporation giving to private philanthropy, but in many States there is no legal restriction against it when exercised for the public good.

In other States, where there is a legislative brake on corporation giving to private philanthropy, the interpretation of the courts has been increasingly liberal, where the intent has been shown to be constructive.

The annual income of corporations in America may be put at roughly one hundred billions of dollars. This varies up or down from year to year, but the distribution of an aggregate corporation income of \$100,000,000,000 can be broken down approximately as follows:

It is quite likely that when official figures for 1949 are computed and released, the figures will be somewhat larger than these cited, but the following will suffice to give the general situation;

The national corporation income	\$100,000,000,000
Production and distribution costs	75,000,000,000
Net before taxes	\$ 25,000,000,000
Taxes	\$ 10,000,000,000
Net	\$ 15,000,000,000

Under the ruling of the U. S. Treasury Department, 5% of the net before taxes may be given to private philanthropic agencies. This would mean \$1,250,000,000 per year. Of this amount, approximately 40%, or \$500,000,000, would be deducted from the tax bill and the remaining 60%, \$750,000,000, would be deducted from the net after taxes.

The operation and upkeep of the privately supported churches, colleges, hospitals, character building and welfare agencies of America require something over \$3,000,000,000 a year in voluntary giving on the part of the American people.

It is believed by thoughtful people, including many corporation heads, that the corporations of America, which now account for one half of the American wealth and for 40% of the American annual income, should, in their own corporate and selfish interests, take a greater share in the maintenance and upkeep of these privately supported agencies. The present trend of increasing corporate support for these agencies reflects a growing sense of responsibility on the part of corporate management for the forces in American life which minister to the intelligence, moral character, spiritual dedication and health and well-being of the American people. There are four major reasons for this trend:

1. Corporations require employees with sturdy character, high intelligence and vigorous health. Corporations whose officers and employees are insufficiently equipped with any one of these qualities, do not succeed as fully, nor make as much profits as those corporations in which the employees have high levels of integrity, intelligence and vigor. It is the primary function of America's private philanthropic agencies to foster moral character, religious dedication, intelligence, health and social well-being.

2. Corporations require a consuming public with equally high qualities of character, intelligence and health. Consumer studies have shown time and again that industry does not sell its products to illiterate, shiftless and unhealthy

sections of the public. Corporations that would increase sales in a mass market have a direct self interest in the general intelligence and morality of American society.

3. The new undiscovered wealth of America will not be dug out of the ground, but will be created by *ideas* of educated and upright men and women. Future frontiers of America are no longer physical frontiers; they are frontiers of knowledge and of the bold application of such knowledge. There are prosperous industries in 1950, employing scores of thousands of people and creating hundreds of millions of dollars in new wealth, that did not exist ten years ago. This new wealth has been produced by trained and educated men. The frozen orange juice concentrate is one such industry, to select but one illustration for this brief presentation. The modern aluminum industry grew out of the mind of a college boy and his chemistry professor 60 years ago in a little one-room college laboratory. This idea and its application have created billions of dollars of new wealth for our generation.

4. Corporation prosperity depends in no small measure upon a proper degree of free enterprise. Today the most perfect demonstration of American free enterprise is that vast network of churches, colleges, character, health and welfare agencies which are supported by the voluntary gifts of men and women who care about the spiritual and moral and educational fibre of the American people.

Ever since the earliest settlers first began to create a nation on these shores, public-spirited men and women of every generation, who have longed for a better world, have been free to build as many churches and schools and character and health and welfare agencies as their own zeal and energy and money could support. The nearly 500,000 agencies, which voluntary initiative has established in all parts of the nation, are the most effective examples and centers of real democracy in action which remain to us. Here men and women work together for the public good without compulsion and without governmental control.

But, in spite of the past effectiveness of these voluntary agencies, some of our present day planners are not satisfied with the progress of our educational and health and welfare

forces. These same planners who advocate more government in business are advocating more government in these cultural forces. They would use enormous new tax levies as a shortcut to the goals of private philanthropy.

Consequently, the officers and directors of some of these agencies, already suffering because many of their previously willing and generous supporters are now staggering under heavy income tax burdens, grow weary in their struggle to serve the public good, patriotically and unselfishly.

Thoughtful persons believe that the continued operation of these free-enterprise voluntary philanthropic agencies is essential to the future vitality of the American dream. If America's private citizens cease to give expression to their freedom of action in carrying forward these service agencies in their own way and in their communities, how else will they have personal experience in free enterprise in the land of liberty? What will be left for them to do for the public good, as citizens of a great democracy—except to vote and pay taxes?

Corporations can give these heavily burdened directors of private philanthropy a much-needed boost. Is it not to the direct interest of corporations to give their full 5% allowable to these agencies, and thus help to keep them as vigorous and enthusiastic examples and demonstrations of free enterprise? If free enterprise is abandoned by American private philanthropy, can it be saved for business?

Managers and stockholders of American corporations seem to have a growing conviction that it is desirable, for the four reasons given, for corporations to use the allowable 5% as contributions to these agencies which mean so much to the moral and economic fibre of our Republic.

At the present time corporations are giving to our voluntary agencies about 1% of their net before taxes, while at the same time individual income taxpayers are giving about 4% of their adjustable gross income. It will be a happy day for these agencies and for America when the growing trend in corporation support will catch up percentage-wise with the generosity of private citizens of the nation.

PUBLIC RELATIONS CAN BE PROFITABLE

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SOME universities and colleges are keenly aware of the great progress which has been made in the last twenty years in the techniques of public relations. They are profiting by that alertness, not only in improved prestige but also in dollars and cents in the form of increased public support. Others are unaware of this new source of financial support.

Industry has demonstrated that public relations pay their way handsomely, but in eleemosynary institutions the "profits" are even larger than for industry.

In those educational institutions whose faculty and staff devote up to one third of their time to modern public relations techniques, it is my observation that such efforts pay an average of from ten to twenty to one, that is, from ten to twenty dollars of income for each dollar of cost. This is possible because many of the costs of industrial public relations are free to eleemosynary institutions, free for the asking and the understanding. This happy situation exists in certain institutions for which I have been engaged in fund raising over the years, and in those forward-looking institutions about whose operations I have taken pains to be informed.

Now, before modern public relations can even be discussed, we must clear our minds of much of the trash of public relations which accumulated in the minds of most of us during the glittering twenties—the decade of ballyhoo, press agency and propaganda.

Public relations isn't press agency, doing favors for reporters, or pushing propaganda into the newspapers. It isn't a slick veneer to cover a shabby interior. It isn't covering up mistakes. It isn't just an information service. It isn't a unit for publicity stunts or ballyhoo. Then what is it?

It's as hard to describe as happiness, but it's easy to know when one has it. Some call it a way of life for a corporation or for an institution.

NOTE: Article by Paul H. Davis on "Can Our 1,160 Gift-Supported Collages Survive" in December 1949 *Bulletin*.

President Dwight D. Eisenhower of Columbia has said that to him the fundamental principle of public relations is that a university should be itself—to let people see and know the university as it really is, with all of its faults and human shortcomings as well as its public services, accomplishments and higher objectives. That is a good place to begin in any public relations program, for courage is an important element in most human endeavors.

As this article is directed to university and college administrators, it is possible to use non-academic or commercial terms. Maybe thus the profit objectives can be more clearly focused and, since in the case of universities and colleges every penny of the "profit" is used for training of youth and public service, no one can possibly object to a high return.

On that basis, let us chart or outline a method of establishing a public relations program, or of evaluating a public relations program in action.

This process calls for clear thinking and the courage to face disagreeable facts. It calls for a definition of what we are trying to do, and then deciding what are the best means of accomplishing that objective. Here are the necessary steps.

First. What, precisely, is the public relations program to do? What are its objectives? Its targets? Is it to create a favorable public attitude toward the institution? Then favorable for what purpose? Favorable for fund raising? If so, that is a worthy objective, but the public relations program doubtless has more objectives. Possibly prestige which will help attract high quality students; help obtain and hold quality faculty; help maintain a high morale in the university family. Prestige is an objective of any good public relations program. But that prestige must be based on some kind of definite service such as service to humanity, to the nation, to individuals, to business, to professions, and don't overlook or try to hide the important human item of service to ourselves.

Second. What are we selling? If there is to be a profit of any nature, there must be sales. What are our "products," and more important, what are the values of our products?

The chief product of colleges and universities is training of youth for the American way of life, with freedom of thought, conscience, religion and communication. That product should

be severely examined. Is it good? Is it tangible? Is it definite? Let's be frank—there can be no doubt but that some of us in education have tried to smoke-screen our shortcomings with some noble statement of aim and purpose, not concrete accomplishment.

Research is another product of a university seeking to improve man's lot in life by helping solve the major problems of society—social, religious, political, health, nutrition, comfort, business, education, welfare and morals. Does your institution come to grips with these problems? If it does, then its research is an important selling item.

Another product—and one which gives concern even to an administrator—is citizenship. Is the product good or effective citizenship? Are your graduates active in their communities? It is my firm belief that no "product" of a modern college or university is a success who does not take some active part in community affairs. Such "training for active and responsible citizenship," as Dwight D. Eisenhower has phrased it, is the very essence of democracy. Not only will the community benefit, but so will the college graduate entering into community life . . . he comes to meet and to know people better, and this knowledge will help him develop as a person.

In this second phase of public relations—relating to the quality or success of the product, a careful scrutiny should be made of each department or school within an institution, to make sure that it is working effectively to produce the desired over-all results.

Third. List and analyze the assets of your products. What do you have which is outstanding? A superb faculty? Superb physical facilities? Superb laboratories, experimental stations, social facilities, athletic equipment? Do you have proximity to a center of world business, to science, to art, to literature? Do you have a location permitting contemplation, thinking and wholesome living? Exactly what are your best selling assets? What do you have of special distinction which marks your institution as being one of high merit which deserves public support? Most institutions have not given this sufficient thought—some have taken refuge in certain familiar or traditional values that may hold little appeal for the public today.

Others have used the trite generic phrases which already have surfeited thousands of expensive sales brochures, or they have

merely listed "our needs." The latter is especially ineffective, for no one outside of the inner family group is interested in "our needs."

The potential donor is interested in his needs, which in our terms may be listed as opportunities, places where the donor can give money which will accomplish a result which he regards important. There has always been a shortage of such opportunities, or at least so donors think. Hundreds of potential donors in your community and mine are waiting or may be actually looking for that spot where their dollars may be truly effective. During their latter years some potential donors spend much time diligently searching for their opportunity. Many have grasped at futile absurdities and others have died intestate—still searching. There is no shortage of potential donors. The shortage is of products of distinction which potential donors regard as important. So list and analyze your products. Precisely what are the distinctive assets of your offerings?

Fourth. What are the liabilities? Here be frank. List the liabilities, analyze them, and endeavor to lessen or eliminate them wherever possible. It's a terrible mistake for an institution to try to ignore them.

Fifth. What are you selling against? What is the competition? Why isn't your outside financial support fully adequate? Generally, it is found that most of the "selling against" is internal, among people who resist change, who cling to fund raising methods long made obsolete by the new conditions of modern philanthropy. There are always university people who do not want to be disturbed, who want the proverbial ivory tower—and probably some should have it. There are the bureaucratic procedures of some universities, the overcentralization of authority, secrecy and higher echelon politics—all these are tangible handicaps which tangible selling assets must offset and overcome.

Externally there is the competition of other universities and colleges and of all eleemosynary institutions. High taxation hurts large potential donors. Your institution may be distant from urban centers, or it may have the challenge of not letting itself be "swallowed" by a huge city. Your alumni may have been permitted to lose touch with alma mater. You may have among the students a few who seek publicity by appearing radical

and sometimes even among the faculty. After listing the "selling against" items, each is analyzed and endeavors made to mitigate or eliminate them—but they must be recognized and active steps be taken to overcome them, usually over a considerable period of time.

The college or university which seeks time and money from people is in direct competition with the most attractive of modern interests and activities as well as with other eleemosynary institutions—some of which possess strong appeal for donors. Whether we like it or not, we must compete for the interest of potential supporters, in direct competition with the films, television, sports, clubs, dancing and a host of other diversions of normal, healthy, human beings. The competition for public attention is terribly keen, regardless of the worthwhileness of our cause, and anything that we can do to capture the imaginations of our various publics in an appropriate way is all to the good.

Such a condition makes it mandatory that our public relations must be continuous, not sporadic, if they are to attract and hold the interest of people.

Sixth. Who are your public relations publics? To whom are you selling? Each of your publics should be identified, analyzed and blueprinted—all about them—age, sex, race, marital status, education, residence, politics, religion, business, economic status, social grouping and even hobbies. This is done for each public of an educational institution—the faculty, the students, staff, parents of students, neighbors, alumni, friends, donors, potential donors, opinion leaders, high school teachers—whomever you are trying to reach. It is essential to know your customer. Who is he, what is he, what does he want, what plans, what pleasures, what displeasures, how is he motivated? Otherwise, how can you hope to "sell" him?

I have come across a number of institutions which do not really know where their students come from—from what areas, what kind of communities or families, what economic status or what reasons caused them to pick that particular institution. Few institutions—although I can name Princeton, Dartmouth and Northwestern as happy exceptions to this matter—take sufficient pains to keep the parents of students informed of important university matters, yet the parents are the ones who pay the bills!

Only a few institutions do a good job in public relations in their own communities—in informing townspeople of their hopes, plans, shortcomings, goals, and thus making them feel they are “on the team.”

The appeals that will be successful, public relations wise, with undergraduate students will not be so with their parents, or with townspeople, high school teachers, and so on—yet many colleges and universities utilize precisely the same public relations methods and materials to reach all these diverse publics. It is like writing the same personal letter to one's father, aunt, sister, schoolmate or brother.

Seventh. What are the methods, new or proposed, for reaching or selling each of our publics?

Analyzing the method: Is it real, is it genuine? Is it forthright, American, courageous? Will it work? Don't underestimate the intelligence of your publics—the publics of universities and colleges can't be fooled either much or long by any clever techniques.

Let's face it: few colleges or universities do the job they should do in informing their own faculty and non-academic employees of important policy announcements, key appointments, budgets and other vital matters which directly concern them. An insufficiently informed faculty will transmit its fears and unanswered questions to its community or city. A happy or enthusiastic faculty will transmit its enthusiasm over an entire state.

Several institutions which effectively reach their various publics are Harvard University, Ohio State University, Mills College and Cornell University.

Eighth. What do we want from each of our publics? Is it gifts, grants or bequests? Is it a favorable vote or a kind word or volunteer service? If we want an alumnus to be an ambassador to solicit gifts, then it is a mistake to pound him for gifts, for if we do, then after he makes his gift, he is finished until the next drive. And on this point it is important to know the facts, such as that in terms of dollars (not number of donors) the alumni of many universities bring to the university from the public, gifts and bequests several times as great as the alumni give themselves—but that is another story and in the area of techniques of fund raising.

Ninth. What do the records show? What are the concrete results of the methods we use? Have they been successful with us, or have they succeeded at other similar institutions? Then, also, what are the success methods? Are there common denominators of success in university programs? Of course, the answer is yes, but it is surprising to see how often these fundamental principles are violated at your university or at mine.

Such questions as these come up. The administration at Harvard University is more decentralized than any other American university; its fund raising program is so integrated in the university that it is in the very warp and woof of the Crimson. Harvard is consistently obtaining more gifts and bequests than is any other university. Is that cause and effect? Some think the three facts are closely related. The Universities of Chicago, Northwestern, Stanford, Columbia, and California Institute of Technology receive over two thirds of their gifts and bequests support from within a radius of 100 miles of the campus. Does it follow that two thirds of the public relations effort should be applied within that circle?

Cornell receives the majority of gifts and bequest dollars from alumni. Most other universities get the majority from the public. Is the Cornell success due to super public relations with alumni or is it the long term product of outstanding public relations with students? Many think it is the latter.

There are hundreds of such items about which data is available, and such data can be used to assist in charting the college or university's course in public relations, avoiding profitless courses and taking routes of advantage. You cannot put your hand on such material at once, but it is to be had from many different sources—books, journals, magazines, speeches, booklets—as well as experienced persons in the field.

Tenth. Program of action. There is no substitute for action. A poor plan aggressively followed is more productive than the best plan applied with lethargy or timidity. The University of Chicago plan may not be the best in the world but it is one of action. And, although some do not approve of the plan, the University of Chicago is a great university and its gift and bequest record is exceeded by only two of America's 1,728 universities and colleges.

That's the outline or chart of an effective public relations program. I admit that it is only a chart and that I have not wholly substantiated my statement that it will pay off from ten to twenty to one. Yet I offer this fact in support of my belief that an effective public relations program pays off on that ratio. On the basis of prestige of gift, grant and bequest totals and the like, the following universities rank high in the United States—Harvard, Yale, Princeton, California, Columbia, Cornell, Northwestern, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Minnesota. Although no university has a public relations program comparable to the best programs in industry, yet each one of these ten universities has an active, effective public relations program in operation.

Look, for example, at the University of California. It receives from the State of California some \$20,000,000 a year. It has state appropriations for capital purposes of \$105,000,000. It has no fund raising program, as such, for gifts and bequests from private sources. Yet it, a state tax-supported university, ranks in the first ten of the nation in terms of totals of gifts and bequests received—higher than 1,160 independent gift-supported universities and colleges. Also, it has accumulated a private endowment higher than any university west of the Mississippi River. That didn't just happen, nor is it due to California's seven campuses—it is largely due, I contend, to its modern, effective public relations program which is so ably led by its President, Robert G. Sproul.

A university president visiting New York asked two questions: first, "What should be the minimum expenditures for public relations in an independent, gift-supporting college and how much for direct fund raising?" A categorical reply to this question is not possible, as there is such a wide range of character of colleges and universities in America, but a good place to start would be at one half of one per cent of the gross expenditures of the institution for public relations and one per cent of the gross for direct fund raising plus one third of the time of the president and the deans.

His second question was: "I have a good public information man. How can I get him trained in modern public relations so he can advise me and lead our program?" The answer is that he must go to school. There are many splendid teachers of mod-

ern public relations in the United States. If I may be excused for naming my own university, I offer one of the best I know, Joseph E. Boyle of Columbia University. Mr. Boyle is not only an able teacher, but is also in charge of public relations for the highly active and largest advertising agency, J. Walter Thompson.

Public information men, or qualified persons with other backgrounds can learn a great deal from the public relations techniques of business and industry, and then use them intelligently for their own non-profit enterprises. As was previously said, many of these techniques can be applied at little or no cost by educational institutions.

Modern public relations is a way of life that has high benefits, both in terms of better living and in earthy terms of dollar totals of gifts, grants and bequests.

THE CHALLENGES AHEAD IN COLLEGE ADMINISTRATION

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THE topic to which we address ourselves this morning, namely, "The Challenges Ahead in College Administration," covers such a wide terrain that it is quite impossible in the time at our disposal to explore it fully. With your permission, therefore, I shall limit my remarks to what seem to me to be the more pressing challenges which are likely to confront college administrators in the years ahead. These are:

1. Definition of aims or objectives of the educational institution with which administrator is associated.
2. The need of every administrator to take more or less constant inventory of himself for the purpose of ascertaining whether he in terms of knowledge and methods is doing his utmost to enable his institution to realize fully its objective.
3. The selection and retention of an educational and well-trained staff.
4. Faculty-administrator relationships.
5. Size and choice of student body.
6. The curriculum, General Education vs. Specialization.
7. The obtaining of adequate financial resources.
8. Relations with community—local, state, national, international.
9. Cherishing and protecting an atmosphere of freedom to the end that the search for truth and the dissemination thereof shall not be impeded.

Not all of these challenges are new. In fact, nearly all of them long have been recurring items and in all probability will continue to persist in the foreseeable future. On each of these I propose to comment briefly.

In his celebrated **HOUSE DIVIDED AGAINST ITSELF** speech of 1858 Lincoln said: "If we could first know where we are and whither we are tending, we could better judge what to do and how to do it." This famous epigram admirably sum-

NOTE: Address given at a symposium held at Wittenberg College, Springfield, Ohio, October 21, 1949, in connection with the inauguration of President Clarence C. Stoughton.

marizes the matter of goals or objectives. Too many of our institutions of higher learning flounder along like a rudderless ship without a sense of direction or ultimate goal. Some spokesmen will tell you that education is the communication of knowledge and attitudes and that the objective of any college should be the communication of knowledge and attitudes which society considers to be of most worth.

But there is wide divergence of opinion as to what is most worth-while and what should be most emphasized. Should research—the discovery of new knowledge be put to the fore? Or should the interpretation of knowledge or scholarship have first place? Over this question, as Professor W. H. Cowley of Stanford University indicated a year ago, a veritable battle has long been waged in this country. Likewise, we have long witnessed the keen struggle between the cultivists and the vocationalists.

In Columbia College with which your speaker has long been connected we have one fundamental objective, namely, education for citizenship in a democracy. More than a quarter of a century ago under the leadership of my predecessor, Herbert E. Hawkes, and at a time when major changes in the curriculum were under consideration, the staff unanimously agreed that it did not make sense to talk about curriculum without first agreeing on goals or objectives. Not only did we state our objectives broadly but we attempted within limits to set forth some of the attributes which we thought a citizen should possess.

We agreed that we wanted citizens with broad perspective, a critical and constructive approach to life; citizens with high standards of value in terms of motives, attitudes and behavior and who have a deep sense of responsibility for their fellows, who are persons of integrity easily motivated to action in the cause of freedom and good will; citizens who will make intelligent and wise judgments and who will work effectively to good ends with others. We decided that we wanted citizens who are ambitious to make good, to achieve in ways which are forthright and aboveboard and who are not above doing humble things, discovering and using for themselves and society the special gifts with which each may be endowed.

We were further unanimously agreed that we do not want citizens who are bounded on the North, South, East and West by

themselves. Nor do we want them to be parasites or leaners on someone else even though that someone be the government. Nor do we want them to aspire to get something for nothing and to find satisfaction in having driven a hard, sharp bargain in their dealings with decent, right-minded people.

Also, Columbia College wants citizens who realize that the democratic way of life not only cherishes freedom but entails obligations and even sacrifice for its preservation. Finally, we want citizens who are healthy, physically and mentally, who will use their leisure in ways creative and not corruptive and go on learning throughout life, adapting themselves to change without losing either principle or conviction.

Columbia College has been cited merely as an example of the importance at the outset of determining objectives. Unless objectives are known it is difficult, it seems to me, to devise any worth-while program of studies, much less a rounded, carefully integrated program—both curricular and extra-curricular.

The need of every administrator, irrespective of the post he may occupy, to take inventory of himself is so obvious that it deserves only briefest comment. Too many of us for one reason or another fail to take frequent stock of ourselves. Either we have not acquired the habit of doing so or we are slaves to a self-satisfying though inefficient routine. Or it may be that though we are conscious of the need for such stock-taking, we are, like Lord Shaftesbury, too busy. In his diary in 1854 he complained "Very busy. Little time for thought, none for reading. Oftentimes do I look at a book and long for it as a donkey for a carrot."

With possible exceptions, we are so much occupied that we have no time for either self-inventory or constructive thinking. Without self-inventory we are apt to become victims of that which is familiar and orthodox, distrusting the new and the unfamiliar. We are apt to acquire a state of mind bordering on what I like to call a mental hardening of the arteries. We cease to be curious, questioning, human beings living in a little routinized world of our own.

Premature contentment on the part of any administrator is apt to be a sign that he is standing still mentally and that his institution is marking time.

Self-inventory might disclose many shortcomings. It might, for example, show us that we have not learned sufficiently the art of delegating some of our administrative authority and tasks to others thus freeing ourselves for reading, thought and observation of what others are doing.

Self-inventory should also help us ascertain whether in terms of beneficial results to ourselves as individuals and to the institution we serve, we have overburdened ourselves with petty details, pursued a weak policy in our public relations, failed to keep abreast of educational developments and experience elsewhere, and the like. The world does not stand still; and no institution or program is so perfect that it will fit for all times; new times are always demanding new measures and men and women with minds open to new ideas.

And this brings me to my third item: The selection and retention of an educated and well-trained staff.

No college is any better than its staff. The kind and quality of education that students receive depend upon the competence, the vision and the conviction of their teachers. In every classroom we want teachers who are dynamic, zestful and inspiring. On every campus there is a scarcity of great personalities, of men and women not merely well-trained in their profession but broadly educated.

We need teachers who are concerned not only with the imparting of factual knowledge, but with the meaning of knowledge in terms of attitude and behavior, who are persons of happy disposition with a sense of humor and who have interest in students as individuals and can win their confidence and respect.

All of us are familiar with the aridity of college teaching, of the dry-as-dust lectures so completely divorced from training, will, reason and imagination and so devoid of emotional warmth. I am reminded of a passage from the Spanish author Una Nuino's *TRAGEDY OF LIFE*. Referring to Goethe who on his deathbed said, "More light, more light," Una Nuino says, "No, not more light but more warmth. Men die of cold and not of darkness. It is the frost that kills and not the night."

Our instructional staff should be made up of individuals whom students seek out and index in their mind as grand persons and wonderful teachers. Persons of insight and sensitiveness who

are concerned with moral values, who have a constructive influence on student morale because of their friendliness and guidance to students, are, indeed, the chosen of God!

Every wise administrator in building personnel emphasizes breadth of education. A liberal education is more than a congeries of courses. A liberal education means a general understanding of society as a whole. Exposure to a series of unrelated courses usually means, as Dr. Ordway Tead puts it, intellectual fragmentation, befuddlement, philosophical anarchy and spiritual blindness.

Breadth implies an acquaintance beyond one's own department. Breadth does not imply lack of competence in a chosen field. There is no substitute for sound training and thorough mastery of one's subject. We do not want teachers who come to class unprepared, who do not keep up with developments in their subject, who use the same yellow-edged notes from year to year and who spend their whole life in a squirrel cage of academic routine. We should have concern for scholarly achievement. This does not mean that the good teacher must be a researcher; but it does mean that he must continuously organize, criticize and interpret the data of his subject.

In the future as in the past, college administrators will be faced with the difficult task of finding and retaining gifted teachers. Our graduate schools and other teacher-training agencies can help if they will. Until very recently our graduate schools have not been overly concerned about teacher education for colleges (1) defining the vocation of college teaching, (2) preparing prospective college teachers for their vocation and (3) selecting the personnel to be trained.

Our graduate schools have proceeded on the assumption that knowledge of the subject and ability to do research in a chosen field are sufficient. As a rule those who recommend the university graduate who has recently acquired his Ph.D. for a teaching post have not seen him teach. Yet the recommendations are made with considerable enthusiasm and positiveness. Clearly, the basis of such recommendations is that a person who can obtain a Ph.D. degree will make a good teacher—a belief that persists despite the fact that observation and experience clearly reveal its fallacy.

What have been the consequences? Our college staffs are weighted with well-meaning but often dull and routine people; some of whom should not be in the teaching profession; many of them do not know how to teach. When one visits the classroom of these so-called teachers, he is impressed with the aimlessness of performance. Again and again one looks in vain for evidence of purpose unless it be to fill the interval with another segment of subject matter which the student can and should acquire for himself.

In the wake of this purposeless procedure come habits of mind and of work decidedly deleterious to both student and teacher. If our graduate schools would wake up to their shortcomings in these matters and if through better economic reward we could attract to the teaching profession more broadly cultured young men and women of outstanding personality and future promise, concerned with giving knowledge and education, meaning and purpose in terms of moral values, the problem of finding the type of teacher for which every college administrator craves would be lessened if not completely solved.

Much has been written about the relation of faculty and administration. Were one to make a fairly complete survey of faculty-administrative relations prevailing in the United States today, he would find wide diversity ranging all the way from the democratic setup in the municipal colleges in the City of New York to the older patterns where a great gulf exists between administration and faculty.

Wise, it would seem, is the college administrator who, in the discharge of his functions, has recourse to democratic rather than autocratic methods. No matter how wise and benevolent the autocrat may be he is not all-wise. By acting in autocratic fashion the administrator cuts himself off from the wisdom and experience of others.

Even worse, perhaps, he presents the educational growth of his staff and fails to get widespread, effective cooperation. In other words, wherever autocracy prevails there may be an atmosphere of efficiency but the right kind of cooperation is conspicuously absent. And where cooperation is wanting, participative thinking and action are also lacking.

Those who favor autocracy will argue that democratic methods

of administration make for weakness and inefficiency in the formulation and execution of educational policy. This may be true if there is an absence of administrative guidance and leadership and if the executive is not given adequate authority to carry out policy.

The argument is also sometimes advanced that faculty action is not always completely disinterested or wise; that certain members of the staff and especially departmental chairmen think in terms of their own interests rather than to over-all college welfare; that log-rolling and apple-polishing are apt to prevail and that weak departments if given a share of responsibility of making new appointments when departmental vacancies occur will pick inferior persons. These arguments are valid. To them may well be added the time-consuming, faculty-administrator conferences, the heavy drain on administrative patience and the disposition of faculties to encroach on rightful and administrative prerogatives.

But when a balance sheet is struck I am satisfied in my own mind that the advantages of faculty-administrative cooperation and of democratic methods of administration greatly outweigh the disadvantages. Recent American history is paved with lists of educational objectives. But no objective, no matter how sound, can be made fully effective without the active and, indeed, enthusiastic cooperation of all concerned.

Faculty members who do not share in the formulation and implementation of objectives are not only likely to be indifferent but intransigent and carping critics who make the sabotaging of the program their main business. With the right kind of administrative leadership there need be no gulf between faculty and administration. With increasing frequency it is being demonstrated that all the members of a faculty can work together cooperatively in the best interest of the college.

Were I a college trustee in quest of a president, I would place high on my list of presidential qualifications, ability to induce individual faculty members to subordinate both selfish claims and rightful self-interests to the welfare of the college. I would also want to be reasonably certain that he had the gift of inspiring his faculty—not a few but all—to work cooperatively together and with the administration.

I would want him, too, to be the kind of person who, at all times, would welcome suggestions and new proposals from any member of his faculty and who, when in error, as administrators sometimes are, is big enough morally to admit it. Qualities such as these make for good faculty-administrative relations.

Another problem which will challenge college administrators in the years ahead is the size and choice of student body.

During the last half century the number of persons going to college has increased enormously. In 1900 fewer than 250,000 persons were enrolled in all the colleges of the country; today more than 10 times that number are in attendance. The Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education estimates that the minimum college enrolment in 1960 will not be less than 4,600,000.

Already the size of the student body has overtaxed the facilities of many of our higher institutions of learning. Even now college administrators are faced with the perplexing question of student numbers. Some may argue that the more students, the more revenue.

Too many students, however, means either outlay for additional facilities including staff, libraries and laboratories or impairment of educational performance. Despite the pressures which may be put upon him, I believe it would be mistaken policy for an administrator to expand his student body at the sacrifice of educational standards.

In the future as at present, college administrators will be confronted with the problem of selection of students. Who shall be admitted and by what standards? To what extent, if any, will economic status, racial extraction or religion be taken into consideration? Will administrators be content to have their entire student body come from one locality or region or will they endeavor to secure as wide a distribution geographically as possible?

To what extent will college authorities depend upon their alumni in selecting students? Should preference be given sons and daughters of alumni? Should those with athletic prowess be given special consideration in the matter of admission? Or should the sole criterion be evidence of ability to handle the educational program of the college? These are a sample of the

questions that confront and will continue to confront the college administrator in the matter of student selection.

It would be interesting to know the amount of time and effort consumed by college presidents, deans and admissions officers in maintaining good relations with alumni, parents, athletic coaches and others whose candidates for admission have been rejected! I cannot leave this item without recording my agreement with those who would employ more flexible criteria in the admission of college students. Advance in this direction would almost certainly follow greater cooperation between school and college authorities.

I have no intention in this brief survey of reviewing even in summary fashion the lively debates and heated controversy which for more than a quarter of a century have enlivened the educational horizon. Here I merely wish to record my belief that all the battles over these and related questions are not ended and that in the future, as now, there must be a good deal of soul-searching over these problems.

As for myself, I am satisfied that President Dodds of Princeton and those who agree with him are right in the contention that our colleges and universities should be free markets for ideas and citadels for those interested in the search for and dissemination of truth. President Dodds' advice that we give more attention to the liberal arts and especially to humanistic studies should not go unheeded. Vocationally and technologically we are the wonder of the world. But a vocation or profession pursued without knowledge of its total social meaning is apt to be boring and stultifying.

In the past too many of our professional and vocational schools, unfortunately, have insisted that the student ignore the liberal arts and concern himself with courses narrowly professional or vocational. The consequences have been inevitable. These institutions have graduated men and women technically trained with little or no interest in the cultural implications of their profession, much less in those things which would enable them to formulate for themselves a satisfying philosophy of life.

The social, political and aesthetic incapacity of the person without liberal arts background and trained only in the technique of his work is likely to be appalling. Happily, we are in-

creasingly realizing that things cultural and vocational should not be divorced.

Happily, too, we are now more aware than ever before that the best educational results cannot be obtained from a program that fails to take into account individual differences, intellectual and emotional, that is devoid of or gives little attention to student health and guidance, that fosters narrow specialization, that is not rich in historic-cultural significance, that is not closely related to the contemporary scene, and above all that fails to utilize the concepts and findings, the insights and understandings, as well as the methods of psychiatry, psychology, anthropology and sociology, physics, biology and bio-chemistry.

In the future, no less perhaps than at present, college administrators will have to wrestle with the problem of general education—a term which is now used for non-specialized, non-vocational learning and which provides a common core of knowledge and stresses behavior in a free society in terms of motives and attitudes.

If not in every college faculty, probably in most of them are proponents of the *status quo* who resist all proposals for change. Others more open-minded, attempt to steer the demand for general education into channels which support their special interests and designs without too much thought about the needs of those to be educated.

For the administrator interested in introducing general education courses, these are obstacles which must be overcome. And when overcome, other problems as departmental *versus* divisional courses, staff, supervision and the like must be surmounted.

Another challenge related to program is the matter of closer student contact with everyday life. Can we not envisage a world of tomorrow where our colleges and professional schools will insist that every student devote a portion of his academic career to a job in which he has aptitude and is interested, whether it be on a farm, in a factory or office, in a museum or with a social agency or a labor union?

Such activity will help him orient his thinking and give him a sense of responsibility that he would be unlikely to derive from the mere reading of any number of books. A liaison between occupational institutions and institutions of learning has enor-

mous educational possibilities as has been demonstrated at Antioch, Sarah Lawrence, Earlham, Bennington and other collegiate institutions.

Rating near the top of all the items which challenge the college administrator in the years ahead is the eternal question of finance. Especially is this true of our non-publicly controlled colleges. To this problem the President's Commission on Higher Education devoted an entire volume. And while there were differences of opinion within the Committee, especially as to its recommendations, there was no dissent as to the seriousness of the problem.

With few exceptions, one may venture the statement that every non-publicly controlled college and university is today deeply concerned about its finances and the financial outlook for the future. Never perhaps in the history of the nation have there been so many "campaigns" and "drives" for college funds. Tuition charges are higher than ever before; fees are up. Because of much heavier taxes large fortunes and large gifts are fewer. Many institutions have sought to broaden the base of giving by enlisting a larger number of donors. Some have established special administrative machinery for gift procurement. Some have been compelled to retrench.

All this is evidence of the seriousness of the situation. Both in academic and non-academic circles one hears more frequently than formerly the question of why any one should want to be a college president. There is no denying that the problem is acute and continuing. But it is a fair question as to whether a college president should be saddled with entire responsibility for financing the institution over which he presides and whether it is a wise use of his time, talent and energy.

In the years ahead even more than today, college administrators will have both the opportunity and the responsibility of making themselves and their institutions more community-minded. Some there are who would confine education at the college level to the ivory tower. Those who hold to this point of view profess to be afraid of what they call vocationalism. They forget that so-called cultural studies, if properly taught, have vocational implications. Not only should we educate for com-

munity-mindedness but we should concern ourselves with training social engineers or community counselors.

As yet our institutions of higher education have given almost no attention to this important matter. Some have trained specialists as health and welfare workers, for example, but hardly an institution has undertaken to train persons as community integrators or binders.

Nor is the challenge limited to the local community. We need to broaden our conception of citizenship to include the whole world along lines indicated by Quincy Wright in his recent address to the Ohio State University Chapter of University Professors.

Closely related to this item are the opportunities in the field of adult education. Increasingly we are aware that education is something that covers the whole of life and should not, therefore, be confined to youth. Adults constitute an important and controlling part of our citizenry and education for citizenry never ends. In an ever-changing world new issues arise. Youth cannot make best use of its talents in an environment where the adult portion of the population is illiterate and ignorant. Nor can a democratic society long exist in such an environment.

We cannot expect everyone to have learned by the time he becomes an adult all he needs to know about jobs, home and family life, government, international affairs, art, music and recreation. Many of our higher institutions of learning have made a beginning in this field of educational endeavor, but it is only a beginning.

I cannot conclude without brief reference to what in my mind is the greatest challenge of all at all times for the college administrator, namely, to cherish and safeguard freedom of inquiry and discussion. To do so at all times is not easy. In the October, 1949, issue of the *Journal of Higher Education* there appears a symposium on academic freedom in which the question of communism and communist teachers is the central theme. Those who participated in the discussion do not see eye to eye and yet all three are highly respected college administrators. It is not easy to refuse to dismiss a teacher accused of being a "red" or a "pink" but who is neither, when the request for his dismissal

comes from one of your trustees, or a regent or an important financial supporter of your institution.

Nor is it easy to say "no" to the pastor of the leading church in your community when he asks you to get rid of a member of your staff because his wife has divorced him. On the other hand, the administrator may be the target for all kinds of billingsgate for getting rid of a non-competent non-communist who raises the cry of violation of academic freedom to cover up his shortcomings. In ways too numerous to mention, the administrator is frequently hard-pressed to abandon, momentarily at least, the principle of academic freedom. This pressure itself is part of the price we pay for freedom.

In the interest of safeguarding freedom in our educational institutions we need to educate the public to the end that every person may realize that his culture and institutions are not unchanging cosmic processes but are human creations which, with the passage of time, undergo alteration. We should help the masses of our people see that it is the part of wisdom that more or less continuous assay or inventory of culture and society in terms of human life and human values be taken and that our colleges and universities are the agencies best equipped to make this assay.

THE ROLE OF SCIENCE IN GENERAL EDUCATION AND SOME SUGGESTIVE METHODS OF EVALUATION

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IN ANY attempt to clarify and justify the part which a particular field may play in the development, conditioning or education of the individual one must first state what is to be attempted in the way of accomplishment. What do we want the individual to be able to do following his subjection to any period of conditioning? What changes do we wish to bring about? Are our ideals always consistent with the basis upon which they have been built? And do they check with the findings as evidenced by evaluation measures of what the individual has accomplished during his period of study? These are some of the fundamental questions which need to be considered in the building and measurement of courses of study within the schools.

The term "General Education" probably needs some clarification in the best informed circles. Broadly speaking, General Education is the opposite of Special Education and consists of the functional training or conditioning of the individual toward the end that he may be more efficient and useful in the kind of society of which he is a part. More specifically, the training of the general student in such a way that he will attain more knowledge and abilities with which he can accurately and adequately recognize and meet the problems involved in his daily activities.

For some time more or less criticism has been directed at the education system of this country for failing to provide the general, non-professional student with the kind of tools and methods which he needs in life. Knowledge of subject matter alone has too long been the foremost, and in many instances, the sole objective in schools. The college graduate and indeed the trained specialist in many cases find themselves armed to the teeth with so-called facts which have been shown by societies in general, and the graduates individually, to have little or no utilitarian value as a list of facts standing alone. Little ability to recog-

nize problems and still less ability in deciding upon a wise and proper course of action in meeting these problems has been the result.

A few institutions have recognized the very definite need for complete reorganization of curricula for the purpose of administering to the needs of all persons in attendance. It is interesting to note in this connection a decided trend in certain of the universities of the Middle West, and elsewhere, toward the functional treatment of the many, rather than the few. It is with exceeding interest and encouragement that we note the story of the changing curriculum from one employing routine drill and mastery of detail to one encouraging initiative, analysis of practical problems, critical thinking and intelligent direction of policy with courses of action to conform to new situations.

These are some of the things, the realization of which, it would seem, might well be included in a list of objectives of certainly most fields of study in the college, if not all. These are some of the things, which through an investigation of activities, interests, attitudes and needs in life situations tend to show us what is needed to be done to improve the efficiency and happiness of individuals.

We have long thought of science as a group of certain subjects—chemistry, physics, biology, geology and the like. The study of the subject materials of these fields has given us many facts and is a very definite and necessary part of science. But the accumulation of facts, as such, is not enough. In order that the facts be usable we must interpret and apply them accurately and strategically to specific situations. As soon as we do this all fields of study have a part to play. Indeed, if the scientific attitude and method be employed, all fields can contribute to the *establishment* of fact as well as to their correct interpretation and application.

Science, perhaps because of the very nature of its development—its search for truth through investigation and experimentation—has established fact-finding within its structure more firmly than other fields of learning. Science probably is thus better equipped than other branches of learning to test ideas and hypotheses. By reason of such equipment, which should include both knowledge of subject matter and how to work with it (sci-

entific attitude, et cetera) science can, it would seem, direct training along pretty sound lines.

Though we note with satisfaction improvement in a few institutions, little progress has occurred in many colleges relative to the functionalizing of science courses. Most of the so-called functional science courses, which have been developed thus far exhibit about as much difference and variation from the traditional science course as one finds between the expressions—tweedle dum and tweedle dee. Much attention is still given, for example, in these courses of a biologic nature to taxonomy and to the study of much anatomical detail which is of little interest or significance to most people. All this to get a better appreciation of nature. In the physical sciences much time is spent learning how to write complex formulae and solve, what is for the general student, uninteresting and impractical problems. Who but the specialist needs to understand the chemical formulae of tryptophane, cholesterol, urea or phenylalanine. What to the many students does a detailed treatment of amperage, ergs, gauss or dynes mean? Teachers of biology and zoology should well remember courses in which the schedule called for the study of certain forms of animal and plant life throughout the year. Questions and statements in the manual read, for example, as follows: "See if you can determine the number of legs possessed by the grasshopper. Your count should total six. All insects have six legs." Or "Crayfish breathe under water. Note the number and kinds of gills in the crayfish. Look up and memorize their names." Granted that such types of treatment as the above have a place in the training of the specialist, where in the name of all that is workable do they fit into the conditioning of the average person?

During the past few years many scientists have come to the realization that there does exist, not so much a difference in the type of training which will prove fruitful for individuals with different objectives (although some variation here is of course necessary), but certainly a vast difference in amount and kind of subject matter used in the training. We are here interested in the general student, the non-science major, the person who will perhaps achieve the bachelor's degree and then proceed to try to fit into society as best he or she can. What are some of

the things which science can do to help this kind of person to more intelligently meet and act upon problems which he will need to face just as surely as others have had to face them?

It should be pointed out here that at the present time and in many places where there are general courses in science in operation there is at most one year during which time one can hope to elicit some desirable changes in students. This is not too long a time to do the things we want to do. Taking cognizance of limiting factors, let us proceed to look at what I admit is a very ambitious set of objectives and a big order for a one year's general course in science. However, we need something to shoot at and perhaps correlation and integration with other fields of study will aid in the realization, if only in part, of our aims. Science then would hope to achieve in collaboration with other parts of the curriculum, the following:

1. The development of a scientific attitude in the student toward the end that he (a) will show a desire to search for scientific explanations (interpretations of and assumptions from facts) without prejudice; (b) will show a willingness to change his opinion on the basis of new evidence; (c) will have the ability to distinguish between fact and theory; and (d) will have a concept of functional relationships.
2. Increased ability to recognize and analyze problems (largely of social policy but to some extent technical) with which he is faced daily.
3. Recognition of value of experiment over argument.
4. Increased ability to clarify and justify answers to questions; to get down below superficial, carefree answers; to think things through more carefully, critically and thoroughly.
5. Ability to recall some facts to aid in making trustworthy—true statements.
6. Following a logical analysis of problems,—an ability to formulate generalizations,—apply them and recognize their limitations in that they may not answer the problem completely.
7. Ability to indicate additional information needed.
8. Ability to *find* additional and reliable information pertinent to problems.
9. A greater appreciation of nature; a fuller understanding of the inter-relationships among living things in the community

or society in which one lives; a greater understanding of other people's reactions and thereby a tendency to get along better with others.

Now I should like to mention some examples of problems wherein science can help in the recognition, analysis of the problems, and choice of a course of action. I will mention two. There are many others.

1. People universally have problems of food. There are many kinds of problems here—economical, nutritional, problems involving sensitivity and disease and others. Here is a specific problem which any one of us might be called upon to meet. To analyze it intelligently and arrive at a wise course of action, we would need to have something of the scientific attitude as defined above and to exercise some of the abilities stated in the above-mentioned objectives. Suppose you suddenly develop a rash on the skin of various parts of your body. On the one hand you may think you know the cause and steadfastly refuse to have a checkup by a reliable physician. Maybe you think strawberries are the cause because you have heard of them causing rashes before. You quit eating strawberries but the rash persists. Now you may still insist that the prolonged effects are due to the one dish or two of berries consumed two weeks ago, become somewhat profane and continue to possess the rash or you may stop arguing and go about the problem scientifically. You will need to think the problem through and decide upon a course of action. Probably the most economical thing to do in the long run will be to first consult a skin specialist. He will test you for allergies and he may find the cause. If he does, you may proceed to follow his directions and dispense with the rash. If he is unable to find the cause and tells you so, you may consult another specialist. By consultation and cooperation with the doctors in experimentation, search for a scientific explanation, willingness to change opinion on the basis of new evidence, et cetera, you should stand a much better chance of obtaining relief than through argumentation, repeatedly dodging the issue, disregarding the facts and refusing to exert a reasonable effort toward the analysis of your problem.

2. A community problem which confronted a group of people in one of our southern states presents an excellent example

of failure to think through completely and investigate thoroughly possibilities for solution. A source of electric power was needed and a committee appointed to investigate possibilities. After consideration of various ways of developing power such as gasoline engine, Diesel engine using oil, steam engine using coal, turbine water wheel and bringing in power on a high tension line from a distant source, it was decided to generate power from a rather small sluggish stream by building a large dam and employing a turbine. A turbine and a generator costing \$20,000 were purchased for \$3,000, a \$10,000 dam constructed and tests made. Water which had been dammed up to a depth of about 12 feet rushed swiftly through the turbine and power was generated for about a half-hour, after which time there was no further water pressure to run the turbine, except the regular flow of the stream which was insufficient. The investigating committee, in company with an engineer, had located a source of power, namely running water, but they had failed to investigate thoroughly and had not noted the amount of water and rate of fall. They had not thought through the problem carefully, had not made measurements using simple devices for determining rate of fall, et cetera, and had moved rather blindly ahead without checking all factors concerned in the proper and efficient functioning of a water wheel.

Now these are the kinds of situations in which I think a program of science in general education can help people. These are only two examples of problems about which people might well have some factual knowledge but above all, exercise a scientific attitude in meeting them. Besides problems of food and disease there are other problems, biological and sociological, pertaining to reproduction and the family; problems, both technical and sociological, pertaining to housing and the home; problems pertaining to communication and transportation, some of which most people must face many times during their lives. All of these can be subjected to scientific analysis, investigation and experimentation. The answers to all are not to be found within the structure of a one-year course in science, not indeed in a four-year course. It is my firm conviction, however, that improved methods of meeting and attacking problems can be realized by students who have had the advantage of a good func-

tional course in science, plus opportunities from all courses in the curriculum of meeting examples—examples and more examples of problems requiring a scientific approach for their solving.

Some Suggestive Methods of Evaluation

We are, I think, with comparatively few exceptions, coming to a more full realization that in order to judge wisely as regards the workability, the worth and the probable need for change of any set of objectives, we must engage in a *continuous* program of close observation and critical examination of students and evaluation of content and method used in teaching.

Results of teaching which conform closely to objectives are to be hoped for, provided the objectives have been set up scientifically. In no case, however, should we feel that any present list of statements serving as objectives is the omnipotent and final dictum in setting forth the goals of achievement for the rest of the Czenozoic era. Rather may we be continually cognizant of a changing world and the strong probability that vicissitudes will continue to occur relative to the activities of men and other living things and that these changes in activities will in turn demand changes with regard to guidance and control. Let us also address ourselves in this regard, certainly to the persons as parts of communities. In other words, we are interested in the last analysis, in devising courses of study which will contribute to the better functioning of some types of societies, some types of communities and the plural is used here because we cannot possibly know how to administer to *society* for the simple reason that we possess no means of studying the *whole* of society.

In evaluation the tendency is to be as objective as possible. By the very nature of man, however, we cannot help being subjective in our judgments. Some of the so-called objective tests do nevertheless give us something more concrete with which we can judge more exactly and fairly. There are, for example, certain behaviors which in any period of time, the society of which we are a part recognizes as desirable for the good life. As a group, we can pool our individual observations and judgments of activities and behavior, with the result that we become somewhat more exact in our judgments.

For scientific evaluation it seems to me there are three main processes to be employed:

1. Constant alertness for observation of activities and changes in students.
2. Systematic recording of examples of desirable changes in students.
3. The re-casting of the structure of curricula and the readaptation of methods in accordance with observed, desirable changes in students.

Methods which can be used in checking abilities, activities and changes in students include: (a) Direct observation of activities in various student-teacher associations. Personal interviews and extra-curricular contacts as well as observation of behavior in class would fall within this division. These personal contacts often are quite revealing and prove a valuable means of evaluating students. (b) Questionnaires of various kinds can be used for obtaining student opinion of courses, both as regards content and method and in procuring information indicating changes in the student. (c) Anecdotal records, provided they are carefully analyzed may reveal the accomplishment of certain objectives. It is not easy to gather facts here and one must be careful to take into account both the student's interpretation of his experiments and one's own interpretations of the records. (d) Pre- and post-tests pertaining to subject matter of a course, attitudes, interests, appreciations, skills, et cetera, are of value with regard to determining levels of students at the beginning and the end of a particular period of training and effect considerable economy of time in the training of certain individuals. The value of pre-tests here is largely dependent upon how much and what can be done in connection with individual differences in any particular institution. To the extent that they point up changes in students, the pre- and post-test combinations if planned carefully are usable and indicate probably as well as any written form, growth or lack of growth in students in terms of a given set of objectives.

More recent trends in the development of test instruments in science include the evaluation of ability to interpret data, to apply principles and to formulate wise and proper courses of action when faced with new problems. These latter types of tests seem to show considerable possibilities in the way of more accurate evaluation of the ability of students in exercising wise

choice and seeking scientific explanation. Their construction for the most part, though not always, is directed toward consideration of life situations and what to do about them. In the interpretation of data test, a situation is given, including certain data, and a conclusion stated. Lists of statements follow to be checked by the student, indicating their use in determining or arriving at agreement with the conclusion on the one hand or disagreement or uncertainty on the other hand. In the application of principles test, a situation is stated, followed by a number of statements of principles. The student is asked to select the principles which best apply to the given situation and also to select from a second list of statements those which he would use as reason for the selection of principles. This type of test shows certain facts and principles learned and *indicates* the ability that students have of applying them to given situations. The lists of principles, and reasons to be used in applying the principles, are claimed by those engaged in the construction of the tests to follow a rather definite pattern and to be quite representative of student reaction where students are given the situation and required to set forth and justify principles of application. This, however, it would seem might need further confirmation and even if quite thoroughly substantiated would still not provide the student with the very valuable experience of making his decision without written statements to guide him in formulating and constructing his own answers. Persons facing life situations are not often given a set of directions on how to go about solving a problem plus a list of answers from which to select the correct course of action. There is of course the eternal question of time in testing and the tests as constructed probably do effect a saving in this regard. The question remains, however, as to what extent should we be concerned in the evaluation of test instruments as regard time required in their administration. Are we not as educators chiefly obligated to provide individuals in so far as possible with the tools which in turn will enable them to recognize, analyze and solve problems? Examples such as are found in tests on applications of principles are excellent materials to use in teaching but in *testing* for abilities to be used in life situations the student should learn by actually doing what he is going to be called upon to do later.

The test which presents the problem but which requires the *student* to give evidence of *his* ability to *formulate* a proper course of action is, in my opinion, the more valid one.

Whatever testing devices we employ, the recording of examples of desirable changes in students in order to be of maximum value should be done with some system of classification in mind. Much data can be gathered, yet if not catalogued in some kind of order, it becomes difficult and unwieldy not only to handle, but to interpret. Headings and plan of recording can, after preliminary collections of data, be decided upon, which will greatly promote final study and interpretation.

Finally, returning to the last of the three processes set forth for a program of evaluation, we find ourselves faced with the very real problem of so recasting the structure of curricula and re-adapting methods as to be in accordance with our findings. Here again must we exercise the greatest of care and remind ourselves that we should be ever aware of the possibility of various interpretations from the data at hand. May we check again and again, testing our experimental findings with regard to use and value in the kind of society we had in mind in setting up our objectives. May we again recall that we must be considerably concerned with change, both of individual and of society, and that the value of the contributions which we may make as teachers depends to no small extent upon our being constantly alert to detect those changes and in arming ourselves accordingly for the job of directing students for better, more efficient living.

SUMMARY OF A STUDY OF COLLEGE SCIENCE COURSES DESIGNED FOR GENERAL EDUCATION

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THIS investigation was begun in the spring of 1948 and completed in the spring of 1949. It has been sponsored by the Cooperative Committee on the Teaching of Science and Mathematics of the American Association for the Advancement of Science.

The purpose of this study was to determine the status, trends, objectives, content, procedures of instruction, problems and values for general education of college-level science courses which are especially designed for students who desire a general and not specialized training in science. Many of these courses have previously been designated by such terms as survey, generalized, orientation, integrated or foundation. All of the above-named courses have had in common the inclusion of subject matter from more than one specialized field of science. In addition to these courses, the study includes single-subject courses that have been modified for the purposes of general education. All types under investigation are herein referred to as *general education science courses*.

In order to secure information on the types and prevalence of courses, an inquiry was sent to the administrators of 967 four-year colleges, universities and teachers colleges in the United States. Replies were received from 660 schools. In addition, a survey of 600 college catalogs gave information concerning 60 more schools. Thus, information is available from 74 per cent (720 schools in all).

To secure detailed information about the specific courses designed for general education a seven-page questionnaire was sent to a selected group of 300 science teachers. Usable course descriptions were received for 150 courses distributed among 103 schools of all sizes. Of this group 28 are teachers colleges.

The data supplied on the questionnaires have been supplied.

NOTE: Summary of the author's dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, Northwestern University, 1949.

mented in a number of ways. For many courses either outlines, syllabi or textbooks are available for study. There are published articles which describe a number of the courses. By personal visits the writer has investigated 28 courses in 17 schools. He has had conferences with 62 teachers and administrators. To validate the answers to the questionnaires and to secure a student appraisal of representative general education science courses, a student opinionnaire has been administered to 1200 students in 14 courses.

Of the 720 schools for which information is available, 59 per cent offer some type of general education science course. Forty-two per cent offer one or more courses which cover both the physical and biological sciences. The remainder of the schools offer courses that cover one area or the other, or offer single-subject courses in science.

General education science is more prevalent in the teachers colleges than in other schools. Of those reporting, 81 per cent offer courses.

General education science courses are now much more widespread than at any previous time. They have multiplied rapidly in the post-war years.

A majority of the schools that do not have general education courses are interested in developing them. Many are making plans for the introduction of such courses. In a few schools science teachers are opposed because they believe that the regular introductory science courses are adequate for all students. A few other schools report a lack of qualified teachers as the reason for not having general education science.

The basic purpose of the courses is to meet the needs of the individual in his life as a citizen of a democratic society. This is attempted chiefly through giving an understanding of the scientific method and facility in its use in connection with a knowledge of the facts, principles and concepts of science that are of value to the individual.

Ninety-two per cent of the courses are planned specifically for the freshman and sophomore years. About one half the colleges require one year of science of the general student. The remainder require more, usually two years. Most schools require work in both the physical and biological sciences.

In classifying courses on the basis of content, four principal types are revealed: (1) the general courses which include materials selected from all the areas of natural science, (2) the courses including subject matter selected from the fields of physical science, (3) those with material from biological science and (4) the courses in single subjects, as physics or botany. Few new courses of the first type are being organized. The single-subject courses are multiplying more rapidly than the other types, especially in the large universities. However, there are fewer of these courses in existence than there are of the other types.

The common methods of subject-matter presentation are, in their order of frequency: (1) the survey of the subject matter of the area covered, (2) the more intensive study of selected units from the subject matter area, (3) the study of selected problems and (4) the historical approach.

In the 103 schools offering the 150 courses that have been studied in detail, the average enrolment in general education science was approximately 400 students per school in 1947-48. This represents about one third of the freshmen and sophomores. In separate schools the number of students that take the courses varies from a small group of 100 per cent of the students.

Individual course enrolments range from as few as eight to more than 4000 students. The largest enrolments are in the biological science courses; the smallest are in the single subjects. There is a somewhat larger percentage of men than women enrolled in the courses.

Approximately 75 different objectives were reported for the courses. Of these, seven are especially prominent. They are, in the order of frequency of mention:

1. To develop an understanding of the scientific method and facility in its use.
2. To provide acquaintance with, or mastery of, the leading principles, laws, and concepts of science, particularly those that have a bearing upon the daily life of the individual.
3. To provide a core of scientific knowledge or to give a broad understanding and general knowledge of science.
4. To develop various scientific attitudes of mind and appreciations of the values of science.

5. To give an insight into the relationships between science and the problems of living and to develop the ability to apply scientific knowledge to the solution of these problems.

6. To develop a greater joy in living through a more complete understanding and appreciation of the natural environment.

7. To emphasize the cultural aspects of science and to show how science has contributed to civilization.

A majority of the teachers reported clearly defined objectives that are compatible with the main purposes of science for general education. However, in some courses there are apparently no special objectives beyond the desire to teach science.

The most frequently used methods of determining subject-matter content are, in order of prevalence:

1. By a determination of the needs of the students.
2. By selection of a textbook.
3. Based upon the interests of students in the class.
4. Material selected to survey a field of science.
5. Based upon an analysis of the objectives and designed to accomplish them.

Material from physics is stressed most in the general courses and in the physical science courses. Zoology and human biology receive the most attention in the biological science courses.

The topics most commonly included in the courses in biological science are, in order of frequency: genetics, evolution, protoplasm and the cell, reproduction in man, foods and digestion, blood and circulation, the nervous system and the senses, excretion, respiration, the endocrine system, health and disease, mitosis and meiosis, photosynthesis, plant reproduction and general ecology.

In the courses in physical science the most frequent topics are, in order: electricity, heat and energy, the solar system, the nature of matter, atomic theory, light, force and motion, chemical reactions, magnetism, stars, materials of the earth, forces that change the earth, geologic history, acids and bases, periodic table, sound, radiation, organic compounds and oxidation and reduction.

There is no ideal content for a general education course. The principal criterion is that the content shall be suitable for the achievement of the objectives of the course.

Although many of the teachers in charge of general education courses are scientists and educators of note, a majority of the teachers in the courses do not have a Ph.D. degree and are in the lower professorial ranks. Twenty-two per cent are assistants with no rank. Only 40 per cent are employed specifically for general education and 30 per cent devote full time to this work. Ninety-one per cent of all teachers are specialists in one or another of the fields of science.

The typical course is one year in length and offers three credits per term. It is given by two or more teachers who use demonstrations, visual aids, field trips and laboratory exercises in addition to lectures and discussions.

The most important problems that arise in general education are concerned with procuring teachers, providing suitable laboratory experience, securing acceptable textbooks and selecting and limiting the subject matter.

There is considerable but not universal enthusiasm for the general education type of science course. In schools where such courses exist, the administrators, above all others, favor them. The courses in most schools were inaugurated by deans or presidents.

Among college faculties opinions vary from energetic advocacy to definite antagonism and from strong interest to a complete lack of understanding of the nature of general education.

A large majority of the persons who teach in the courses like them and work diligently to make improvements. Some teachers have been assigned the courses against their will. In the main, these teachers are subject-matter specialists whose interests lie in their specialties. Also they feel that they are inadequately prepared for teaching in a broad field of science.

Among science teachers there are some who oppose the general education courses because they take students away from their own specialized courses. On the other hand, there are those who believe that the general education courses are an excellent means of interesting students in following a scientific career.

There is a tendency for some scientists to look down upon the courses and their teachers. This attitude may have been justified in former years when the courses were sometimes elementary

and superficial and the teachers poorly prepared. Although these conditions still exist, they are not common. Most of the courses are well developed and many of the teachers rank among the best.

The teachers report that most of the students like the courses. Various student appraisal studies corroborate this viewpoint. However, there are some students in every course who dislike science or find it difficult.

In the student opinionnaire investigation, 77 per cent of the students rated the courses above average in the choice and use of instructional materials and procedures. Seventy-five per cent said the courses were above average in imparting useful scientific information. Fifty-six per cent rated the courses above average in making a positive contribution to their college education.

Most of the students were enthusiastic about their teachers. Eighty-eight and 85 per cent, respectively, rated their instructors above average in knowledge of subject-matter and in enthusiasm for their courses.

In general, the courses, the procedures of instruction and the teachers were given a high rating. The conclusion must be drawn that a large majority of the students believe the courses to be highly satisfactory.

General education science is rapidly occupying a position of importance in college curricula. It is growing in prevalence, popularity, and respectability. Ambitious young science teachers can expect to look to this field for a career that will offer the same rewards as a teaching career in one of the separate sciences.

In this relatively new area of science teaching there is a tremendous challenge to teachers to perfect their techniques in presenting science to the non-scientist. On all sides the challenge is being met by teachers who are improving old procedures and experimenting with new ones. From their efforts are coming methods that will be of value in all types of science courses.

General education science is firmly established and widely accepted. We can confidently expect that in the near future there will be an even greater extension of the courses in American institutions of higher education. In this scientific age, we can look forward to an increase of literacy in science that will benefit both the individual and society and smooth the path for the progress of science.

SOME TOP-LEVEL ACADEMIC PERSONNEL PROBLEMS IN NEGRO COLLEGES

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THE term "one world," which sounded like little more than a cliché when uttered by the late Wendell Willkie, has been turned into a dynamic, pulsating *concept of survival* by such technologies as television, the B-36 and atomic fission. It has now been clearly demonstrated that man, from a given place, can see the world, without stopping, can circle the world, and by the atom bomb, can destroy the world! As a result, all the world is now one big neighborhood and all the peoples of the world are neighbors, whether they want to be or not. In order for men to live most successfully in the complex milieu which they have created, it is necessary that each one have a certain common denominator of education as a minimum.

It is important that all of today's citizens be given a near equality in the quantity and quality of education considered necessary to enable them to cope with today's problems. If there are some elements of this citizenship left underprivileged in exposure to the proper knowledge, ideals and attitudes in them, it is almost inevitable that alien doctrines, principles and policies will find fertile soil for growth. In order for us, right here within our own immediate vicinity, to weld a solid unyielding bulwark of strength, founded in the democratic principle and bolstered against alien infiltration, we must make our educational system turn out high calibre youth who are able to participate satisfactorily in our advanced culture, compete in our complex economy, contribute to our democratic policies, appreciate our evolving ideology and protect our American philosophy.

The colleges of today that can produce the end product in human resources envisioned above, must be staffed and administered by great and worthy scholars. The quality of education offered in the colleges is in relationship to the quality of the personnel responsible for guiding it. Other things being equal, the more highly trained the educational personnel are, the better will be the quality of the education produced. In general, the

tone of an institution is largely set by the quality of its top-level teaching staff and academic administration. When the academic personnel is rated, it is rated in terms of earned academic degrees, significant research, books and other important data published, membership on boards, commissions, or other distinguished bodies. In the absence of these tangible evidences, the quality of the staff has to prove itself.

The colleges today to which Negro youths go, which are administered and staffed by Negroes find it difficult, if not impossible to staff with the kind of personnel that can give the stature here described. By and large, there are not enough of the kind of Negro scholars here visioned to staff the Negro colleges existent. Further, the Negro scholars have yet to prove themselves, as a group. Even now, the number of Negroes being turned out who have earned the highest degrees is insignificant in relation to the need in the many colleges. Evidences of scholarship, in the form of significant research and books published, are meager.

In a comparison of the quality of the staff of Negro colleges with the level of training available, in relation to demand of the times, the Negro colleges of today are less favorably situated than formerly. They will not soon, if they will ever, regain this parity between available trained personnel on the staff, in relation to the demand of the times. This poses a dilemma, if and when they cannot produce the desired product. Several factors are now operating which act to dam up the channels through which the colleges formerly obtained much desirable personnel.

1. Historically, in the past, many distinguished white scholars, either of a missionary spirit or for a very nominal salary, gave their services to, and in some cases, devoted their lives to education in Negro colleges. This source no longer exists. Probably the missionary to Negro education is no longer needed. The possibility of obtaining aid in the form of paid service of white teachers has been removed in some cases by state or local laws that prevent white people from teaching in Negro schools.

2. In the past, also, much of the educational leadership and statesmanship for Negro colleges was vested in the clergy. A great number of the colleges were church established and supported. The rise of local and state support of public education

and a decrease in monies available from church support and philanthropy, have caused many of these colleges to disappear. However, during the period when church and other private colleges were flourishing, a great deal of the educational leadership and teaching was done by the clergy in connection with their religious work—to the advantage of education, because of the usual higher training of the clergy. At present, however, the church and religion have expanded their functions, and the prosecution of the several new extra-religious clergy function has caused them to release active school-teaching-administrative functions.

3. Since World War II, new opportunities have opened for the more highly trained Negroes in both state and federal government. Gains in government employment made by Negroes represent losses to educational institutions. The most notable losses from this cause have been in the fields of sociology, economics and science.

4. Within the past three years several recognized white colleges and universities have recruited a significant number of distinguished Negro scholars for their faculties. This is in line with the American ideology of equal opportunity and fair employment of qualified persons wherever openings exist. The practice may be expected to continue. While any college or university is acting properly when it strengthens its staff, this new development in racial integration in white college and university faculties, which cannot be reciprocal, works a real hardship on colleges which must be staffed by Negroes only.

5. A final development contributory to this problem is the crystallization of the Regional Education Plan. Since it is the avowed purpose of the regional plan to furnish in the selected regional colleges, training second to none, it is to be expected that efforts will be made to obtain for the selected regional colleges, the best possible teaching talent. Here again will be observed a siphoning away from the other colleges of more of the limited top-level staff now available.

At present the regional plan is just taking tangible form. Preparation has been made with selected colleges for the areas of medicine, dentistry and veterinary medicine. The future alone can tell in what other areas the regional plan will express itself.

If it can be defended in the above named special areas, certainly there are other special areas in which Negroes need training, and for which available training facilities in the states are not fully adequate. This category includes such fields as: nursing education, law, social work and library science. It is within reason to feel that in the not too distant future, some colleges now operating will be selected to expand their work to take on regional functions in many other designated fields. If this happens, the remaining colleges will feel the effects of further draining away of their top-level teaching resources.

Now, added to the above factors, in recognition of the limited quantity of top-level trained Negro educational personnel available, there is considerable competition between the Negro colleges for that which is left. This competition is increased by two factors:

1. There is continuing necessity for all colleges to obtain and maintain the desired rating by their usual regional rating boards. Training of the staff is an important criterion in the rating of the college.

2. Several colleges, especially the state colleges, have been given a mandate to carry on a program of graduate work. Many have had to begin graduate work in spite of an inadequately developed undergraduate program. While yielding to their mandate, they carry graduate programs under most adverse conditions. In an effort to make their graduate programs as respectable as possible, each college takes whatever steps it finds ethical to recruit as much top-level teaching personnel as possible. This results in a concentration of faculties of top-level training, in the main, in a few colleges giving graduate work, while the rank and file of the other colleges are staffed with teachers with the medium to low degrees.

The presence or absence of staff members with top-level training in a college is not entirely explained by the presence or absence of graduate work. The question of salary paid to top-level trained staff members (full professors, deans and holders of the doctorate) has an important bearing. Apropos of the salary paid this group in Negro colleges, a study was made by the writer. The study included returns from 22 supported (state, municipal or district) colleges and eight private colleges.

When one observes the chart of salary scales existent in the several colleges, it is not difficult to feel that there is likely to be some amount of restlessness on the part of personnel, and a continual bargaining and changing of positions in search of greater financial security. The over-all salary scale picture in the reporting colleges shows that there is a range of payment for full professors on a nine months' basis of \$2,700 to \$3,500 at the lowest paying college to \$5,000 to \$6,000 in the highest paying college. On an average, the colleges by categories pay within the following average ranges:

All colleges	\$3,959 to \$4,802
8 Private colleges	\$3,656 to \$4,428
22 supported colleges	\$4,069 to \$4,938

The private colleges are paying from \$400 to \$500 less per nine months than the supported colleges. This has its implications for the quality of teachers and tenure there.

Many of the colleges conduct summer sessions in which the teachers are employed. This supplements the nine months' salary. It is beyond the point here to call attention to the values that might accrue to both the teacher and the institution if the teacher earned a sufficient salary in nine months to spend most of the summers in rest, research, travel or study. Financial necessity causes most teachers who are not being pressed for degrees to engage in gainful employment somewhere, most summers.

In connection with those institutions which employ their teachers in summer sessions, the amount of pay earned and the basis for determination, varies among the colleges. The payment varies from a flat \$100 "bonus" in one college, to a sum of \$1,500 to \$2,000 in one college. Some other bases for pay for summer sessions' work follow:

- a. Same monthly rate for summer
- b. \$900 to \$1,275
- c. \$1,200
- d. One sixth regular salary
- e. \$600
- f. \$12.50 per day
- g. A month's salary for six weeks
- h. A month's salary for seven weeks
- i. \$400 to \$500
- j. One fourth regular salary (if money is available)

At this place a word is in order concerning salaries paid holders of the Ph.D. degree. Most of these are in the professorial rank, but some are not. Regardless of the academic rank, these individuals are highly important in maintaining the quality of the program. The study shows that the average salary paid these teachers, on a nine months' basis, varies from an average of \$3,350 in the lowest paying institution to an average of \$5,500 in the highest paying institutions. The average for the 22 institutions reporting on this item is \$4,389.

Attention was next focused on the compensation of the academic deans. The findings reveal that the salary position of the dean as the chief educational statesman of the college is not well defined. While it is not shown through the study, observation by the writer leads to the belief that the deans, in most Negro colleges, carry also some teaching responsibilities. The findings here give implications of teaching responsibilities which in some cases seem "heavy." In reply to the question of "extra compensation for service as dean," the study shows that the colleges vary in their practices from no extra payment to \$200 to \$600 extra. In many cases special considerations or emoluments are allowed as follows:

- a. Higher general salary (one case)
- b. \$150 to \$300, depending upon teaching load
- c. \$220
- d. Equivalent of one month's salary extra
- e. Some pay, but amount not fixed
- f. Home and utilities
- g. Apartment
- h. Opportunity to do extension work for extra pay, depending upon the institutional teaching load.

The analysis here shows the Negro colleges occupying a precarious position in the total program of national education. However precarious the position, it is one in which these colleges must be maintained for a considerably longer period. Certain customs and mores make it so. It is therefore important that due recognition be given the seriousness of the plight of these colleges, that proper steps may be taken to establish them as sound academic units in the total program for the length of time they are found to be necessary.

In order to properly stabilize the Negro colleges, some real educational statesmanship must be expressed by each State Department of Education where such colleges are necessary. Many of the ills of these colleges are curable by more adequate financing. Proper financing would not only help reduce teaching personnel turn-over where the reason for the turn-over is the search for more adequate salaries, but would also make it possible for the colleges to provide supplies and equipment needed by the top-level teachers to keep them happy in their work. There is no more stultifying a situation than to be prepared to work and willing to work, but to have no place in which to work, or nothing with which to do it. Many top-level teachers change jobs to escape professional suffocation in the "have not" colleges.

Closely akin to this is the consideration of living conditions available for Negro college teachers. Few of the colleges have available sufficient housing for faculty members. It may be reasoned that provision of housing is not a necessary obligation of a college. Probably it is not, ordinarily. But, it is in most cases, an obligation which Negro colleges must necessarily assume. The urban housing shortage is well known to all. This covers the question of provision of housing for college teachers for those colleges which are located in cities. But, many of these colleges are located in semi-urban to rural environments, where housing comes at a further premium. The colleges least adequately prepared to furnish or locate adequate housing for personnel will be most hard pressed to hold them.

These statements raise into sharp focus the need for adequate financing of the Negro colleges. It gives further grounds for considering the desirability of Federal Aid to education at all levels. Whatever the solution, it must be found, and found quickly, to prevent irreparable damage to more of the colleges which are staffed and administered entirely by Negroes.

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THE ANALYSIS OF A STUDENT-FACULTY RATING FOR COLLEGE OBJECTIVES

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THE Curriculum Committee from the Liberal Arts division of a university was requested to prepare a list of objectives for the college. These aims were to be sought by the teaching staff. It was expected that their consummation would be brought about in the individual student. They were to serve as a pattern for all-around development. They were to form the basis of a concrete program of educational expansion.

The appointed group spent many hours in careful study and discussion of all phases of the assignment. A report was duly presented in which it was stated that there was no implication that the college had been or was at that time neglecting what was being proposed. It was believed that reappraisal was in order with possible shifts in emphasis. Twelve aims were set forth for emendation, adoption or disapproval. With a few changes the findings were accepted.

Thereupon each faculty member was asked to evaluate the list by arranging every aim in the order of its importance as he saw it. Certain teachers, exercising the privileges of freedom of opinion extended, wrote or expressed a critical judgment. These few felt that more needed to be said than could be covered by mere enumeration. To them a first, second, third order, etc., was not entirely appropriate. However, a numerical tabulation was prepared and offered as a consensus for the entire body. Whether the dissidents were represented somehow in this formulation is not known. A condensed summary of the final result follows.

The totals of the second column were found, first by multiplying the standing on the list, 1, 2, 3, 4, etc., by the number of first, second, third, fourth places assigned to it, then by adding these figures. Seven faculty members gave Critical Thinking first place for a total of seven points, three gave it second for two points each, six in all, etc. In this professorial table there was provision for six half-steps—2, $2\frac{1}{2}$, 3, $3\frac{1}{2}$, for example.

Objective	Rank	Sum of Individual Ranks
Critical Thinking	1	101.5
Character Development	2	103
Scholastic Achievement	3	103.5
Mental Health	4	141.5
Human Relations	5	150
Social Ideals	6	157
Command of Communication	7	157.5
World Outlook	8	163
Religious Development	9	191
Physical Health	10	197
Vocational Development	11	206
Individual Avocational Development	12	247

Several interesting points appear. Critical Thinking and Character Development are very close, Social Ideals and Command of Communication are practically tied. Other pairs are not far apart. The position of Mental and Physical Health, of Religious and Vocational Development should be noted.

From the more complete results, not reproduced above, it was found that every aim was given a ranking of eleventh or twelfth place by one or more teachers; that eight purposes achieved a rating of first place. One or more persons made Social Ideals second choice, Vocational and Individual Avocational Development third, and Religious Development fourth. The position of the factor of Religious Development, standing ninth on the list and having been accorded no place nearer the top than fourth by only five individuals, is striking. In view of the fact that Character Development was given first rank by six people, second by three and third by three, with six persons placing it fourth, it would seem that a large number placed a wide gulf between religious influence and character-building. Is it fair to assume that the religious influence has declined, that pure ethics forms the basis for the cultivation of what has long been so intimately associated with the church and its precepts for individual guidance?

The attention given to Scholastic Achievement is also noteworthy in that a single teacher only, rated it at first place. Four gave it second, three had it third, with the rest of the voting so

evenly distributed that it came out close to the top though not so very far ahead of Mental Health. One member observed that a healthy mind should lead for without it other aims were fruitless. If one analyzes the objectives minutely, their interrelationship and interdependence become increasingly evident.

These results offered challenge. An earnest effort was made to invoke a number of these worthy proposals in various classes. As the report stated it was a matter of shift in emphasis and concerted drive to intensify effort. But much variation in thinking had occurred among the faculty as to relative merit. Would the students themselves exhibit as great diversity? It was thought advisable to try to find out. A class of forty-two general biology enrollees afforded a usable group with which to conduct a survey. Several questions arose. How would student appraisals compare with those of the teaching staff? Would anyone take issue with the procedure? Approximately a dozen upperclassmen were included in the sample, the rest being freshmen. Would these novices in the educational circle have anything noteworthy to contribute, individually or as a group? What would crystallize out of collective opinions as yet uncontaminated by academic thought? Several in the group were veterans. Twenty-five were men, seventeen were women. The level of class intelligence had been found promising.

The exercise was proposed in mid-October. It is unlikely that many, perhaps none at all, had seen the original poll. The objectives were not dictated in the order in which they were obtained but were mixed so that those at the top and bottom of the list did not appear as in the original. It was too early in the academic year for much of the educational philosophy of the instructor to have made an impression by example, method of procedure or statement. Therefore, the group may be considered to have gone ahead without instructional influence. Results indicated a serious consideration of the exercise, no collaboration and no copying from the dictation. Several members commented at length upon the items, showing precise grasp of what was involved and analytical reasoning of good quality. There had been a little problem work intended to stimulate critical thinking. A summation of student evaluation follows:

Objective	Rank	Sum of Individual Ranks
Character Development	1	99
Critical Thinking	2	102
Human Relations	3	194
Vocational Development	4	251
Scholastic Achievement	5	274
Mental Health	6	282
Social Ideals	7	288
World Outlook	8	311
Command of Communication	9	323
Religious Development	10	363
Individual Avocational Development	11	383
Physical Health	12	384

Comparison of the two tables now shows both similarity and marked difference. Vocational Development, given eleventh rating by the faculty, was estimated fourth by students. Human Relations displaced Scholastic Achievement, relegating it from third to fifth place, an exact interchange. Character Development superseded Critical Thinking but both led in each case with about three points difference between them. World Outlook remained exactly the same. Religious Development, ranked already low, was devaluated even more by the class. Individual Avocational Development nosed out Physical Health which had to take final place. Other shifts in emphasis can be observed.

An examination of the entire poll showed no student who felt that Critical Thinking and Character Development were deserving of twelfth position. In fact one student only placed the former in eleventh place and all others had it no farther than sixth, whereas only one had the latter as far down as eighth with the rest putting Character Development not beyond fifth. The concentration of these two qualities by the students in the forefront of the listing is noteworthy. Twenty-one had Critical Thinking in first place and seven in second. Thirteen put Character Development first, twenty-six in second, ten in third.

Yet the nearest that Religious Development got to a first rating was the vote of five who had it in fourth standing. Is this to be interpreted as a trend or can the entire exercise be discounted as largely due to circumstance? It is true that some of the aims

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could easily have different meanings placed upon them by any individual, young or old. However, we associate *religion* with what seems good and something connotative of a "way of life," ordinarily. If it implies moral behavior and conduct how can it be dissociated from *character* in the thinking of so many? Does "religion" still mean a form, ceremony, creedal statement of belief and denominationalism? Is it that faculty and student alike shied away from it because they felt it synonymous with Catholicism, Protestantism or Judaism? Did it symbolize Congregationalism, Methodism, Presbyterianism, Liberalism or any other "ism" which disqualified it as part of a program of education in a college of Liberal Arts? In the midst of so much machine-age secularism is religion being neglected as a fit subject for inculcation in the youth of today?

At the same time that six students were giving Religious Development ninth place, five put it tenth, eight in column eleven, and nine in twelve for a total of twenty-eight students of the forty-two polled, two rated Vocational Development last, five had it eleventh, two and three in tenth and ninth positions, respectively. Twenty-four had it in the upper half of the list of aims. It should be repeated that this poll was taken in a Liberal Arts college of a university where technical, agricultural and other interests were represented. If the students understood the terms at all, and there is no shred of evidence to indicate that they didn't, they certainly had practical pursuits in mind and were expecting to be trained in some measure for their life work. Here is something else to think about.

As a third step in this study, it has seemed that it would be of interest to combine the two polls in order to discover the nature of a faculty-student point of view. It may not, of course, be valid to assume that the class tested was representative of the whole body or even of the entering freshman segment. Likewise, there might be some objection to weighing the collective views of practically an entire faculty, twenty-five in number, against those of a random student sample a little less than twice that size. Whether statistically valid or not the tabulation below is offered for what it may be worth. The combined poll showed, on a point basis, this result:

Objective	Rank	Sum of Individual Ranks
Character Development	1	192
Critical Thinking	2	202
Human Relations	3	342
Scholastic Achievement	4	408
Mental Health	5	424
Vocational Development	6	444
World Outlook	7	445
Command of Communication	8	479
Social Ideals	9	526
Religious Development	10	571
Physical Health	11	579
Individual Avocational Development	12	626

Study of the three tables now reveals a kind of middle ground attained, with the students' appraisals coloring the synthesis slightly. Character Development maintains its supremacy over Critical Thinking but by a reduced margin. Human Relations keeps third pace. Scholastic Achievement is fourth or just between its assignment by the general biology group and the teachers separately. Vocational Development is at the halfway point, neither high nor low as in the other ratings. Individual Avocational Development has gone back to final rank again whereas World Outlook, eighth in both previous surveys, has now moved up a degree. There is only one point between it and Vocational Development, however.

The closest that any other pair of abstractions come to each other is in the case of Religious Development and Physical Health. In the combined figures the former has an eight point advantage over the latter, where it remains in tenth place as it occurs in the students' table. In all other instances but the two cited, there is a fairly wide spread of difference between one trait and the succeeding. Possibly the united data give a fairer estimate. Doubtless, the character of the final table could be noticeably changed with the addition of other evaluations by the faculties of each division of the university, more student participation and by records obtained from other institutions. Curiosity prompts wonderment as to the outcome of an investigation on a mass scale but the scientific spirit forbids speculation!

Two students discussed the exercise at length. Some of their observations are pertinent. One doubts that the twelve can be put in sequence according to importance because of so much interdependency. He says that a person's character is well set by college entrance time with its basic structure laid by parents and "... if there are any flaws, they are rather hard to correct." He calls Religious Development a "stabilizing influence" with its importance depending upon character. He places Mental Health first because without it "the other objectives are useless." This remark will recall a similar one by a faculty member.

The second participant says bluntly that it is impossible simply to list these terms for they are "meaningless without specific definition" and some are variations or complements of the same idea. He proceeds both to define and condense. "Character" to him is very important but is essentially a unity of the elements of all. It is just possible that many felt as he, accounting for the very high score accorded this feature by the student group. His comments upon Scholastic Achievement are suggestive. He has put it last "... because it generally refers to the marks that one receives. The person that delivers the most correct (or accepted) answers generally receives the highest marks. Unfortunately, this does not mean that he is the most educated. Education is more than memorization."

If nothing more was gained than this thought the time used in the venture might be considered well spent. For it very likely exposes a perennial weakness in much that we consider "teaching" and "learning." Too many students over the years have expressed identical views for the present to lack significance. Recently, a former student was talking about his college program in a leading institution. When asked whether he still intended to pursue medicine he replied negatively. Further inquiry showed that he had formed an exceedingly warped view of biology courses preparatory to that profession.

His roommate had taken a whole year of General Biology and was disgusted over the entire experience because it consisted solely of "memorizing quantities of meaningless scientific terms and facts of no practicality with no consideration of problems." In the few available brief minutes only some statements could be marshalled to show that biology was from beginning to end a

series of fascinating, interrelated situations—many unsolved. This was exactly the reverse of the conception which the young friend had received secondhand. Somehow biology had been made sterile and dull for two lads when, if interpreted and presented properly, it should be the most absorbing and stimulating of sciences. A fine mind had been turned from it completely because situations in mathematics, physics and chemistry requiring intelligent solution could be seen but assurance had been given that biology was nothing but memory work with dry-as-dust technicalities and lack of applications. How could such an impression in this day ever have been transmitted or formed in a modern classroom?

The Curriculum Committee stated wisely that it had tried to avoid two pitfalls, one of making too general a list which would be worth little and next, the compilation of such a lengthy, specific set of terms that it could not be easily managed and grasped. The task was kept well within bounds. What remained unsaid was that any system fails when it is applied without imagination or is allowed to degenerate into the Mumbo Jumbo of rigid formulas. Few take kindly to such inelasticity and drabness. With good aims before him for attainment, and acting without the stipulation that they must be followed as a mechanized, categorized blueprint would direct, the willing teacher could invest them with the magic of his discerning personality and bring them to life and fruition.

THE CASE FOR CULTURAL DIVERSITY

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1.

OUT of the confusions of recent world history, one fact has now clearly emerged: the communist intention to establish a world-wide uniform culture. The proponents of this plan were greatly encouraged by the outcome of the Second World War. The defeat of National Socialism, which also envisaged the establishment of a world culture, removed a dangerous rival from the scene. Moreover, opposition to communism has been and still is largely unorganized, for opponents have various and independent reasons for their antagonism. Communism is feared as a threat to religion, to a particular church, to the rights of labor, to private property or to intellectual freedom. But gradually the feeling is developing that a threat to one loyalty is a threat to all and that the common danger in the communist plan is the threat of cultural authoritarianism.

In order to maintain historical perspective in the interpretation and evaluation of the communist plan to establish a uniform culture on a worldwide scale, it is useful to take a quick glance backward. For there have been other such plans. There was Alexander's attempt to "Hellenize" the ancient world. Pagan Rome sought to impose the civilian institutions based on the Roman philosophy of natural law on the victims of its military conquests. The Christian emperors enforced confession and baptism and liquidated those who refused to conform. Although the official "missionary" methods were for the most part unchristian and the immediate cultural changes superficial, the intent was to establish the Kingdom of God over the length and breadth of the earth. In the era of the Holy Roman Empire, the Church, by using the authority of the State, sought to establish its cultural domination over all phases of human life. When finally even its religious authority was challenged, it did not hesitate to use the devious means and oppressive instruments of political absolutism to enforce its will. In addition to such programs on the grand scale, history records a number of schemes and projects,

some abortive and some stubbornly vital and periodically renaissance, for the permanent solution of human problems in some specific and limited area in accordance with a universal formula. The communist plan for a world culture is therefore not a new phenomenon in history, though it is probably the most radical and highly organized of its kind.

It is apparent that history offers little encouragement to those who plan to impose a uniform culture on the world. Moreover, in the case of the most successful of these movements, Christianity, it was in times of peace and through the arts and institutions of peace that the Christian ideology reached its greatest depth and range of influence. Cultural indoctrination by force has certainly never been an enduring success. It would seem, therefore, that opponents of communism might well relax and let history repeat itself.

Now it may well be that the great controlling forces which fashion human history can be counted upon to effect the ultimate failure of the current authoritarianism. There is comfort in knowing that one has history on one's side. The scholar on his Olympus may require nothing more. But it is hardly enough for a responsible intelligence which needs to justify its loyalties. Nor is it enough for him who seeks a guide to action. Opposition to the theory and practice of cultural uniformity and belief in cultural diversity and commitment to its active promotion and defense must rest on rational grounds. Private interest, personal taste and group bias are not enough.

2.

The student of cultural history finds these grounds in the proven virtues of cultural diversity. To begin with, variety of cultures makes possible adaptation to differences in physical environment. To put it in another way, different physical environments induce the development of different cultural accommodations. Fundamentally, the relation of the two, physical environment and cultural type, is a reflexive causal relation. However, it is man who must make the accommodation. Thus certain characteristics of dress, daily food, living quarters and recreation in a tropical climate are adaptations to that climate. The tempo of business and the character of social life are different in

a hot than in a cold climate. The character of rituals and the use of symbols are selective in the sense that they are affected by climate. For example, the extent of the use of outdoor baptism, with all its excitement and extravagance, and of the use of fireworks in holiday celebrations is largely determined by climatic conditions. Because of physiological weakness or preference, man will, in turn, seek to alter his environment. He will build a type of house which protects him against inhospitable characteristics of his larger physical environment. Even his accommodations to temporary abnormal physical conditions, to the hardships of trench warfare, for example, reveal a versatility which must be reckoned as a valuable asset. It is hardly likely that anyone would entertain the fantastic notion of attempting to induce mankind to aspire to uniformity of adaptation to the natural diversity of physical nature, but even the vagrant entertainment of the notion suggests the loss which would result from the disappearance of cultural variety.

Cultural differences are also manifestations of differences in racial personalities. Whether environment determines racial personality or racial personality determines the cultural character of a people need not be determined here. The controversy over the possibility of eventually reducing cultural heterogeneity to homogeneity is also in this setting a theoretical question. It is clear that in the world as we know it in history and experience, racial diversity has required cultural diversity. A racial character may manifest itself in the form of an unusual interest or capacity, as in the case of the Jewish race in musical virtuosity. The Anglo-Saxon ideal and practice of sportsmanship is another case in point. The Latin, the Hindu, the Chinese, the Negroid—each race has contributed some special element to cultural diversity. Cultural history reveals evidence of both cultural resistance and adaptability. An example of the former is the survival of elements of the native religion in the Catholicism—a European importation—of the South and Central American Indians. The phenomenon of expeditious cultural adaptability, on the other hand, is strikingly exhibited in the American melting-pot. Whether what is preserved or what is lost is to be considered a gain depends upon the beliefs and loyalties of the observer. At all events, taking mankind as it has been and is,

cultural diversity has been a useful medium for the expression of racial differences and has been a source of good. One has only to imagine what the consequences would have been, or would be today, of the forcible suppression of this cultural diversity.

The most general advantage, potentially universal, of cultural diversity is the enrichment of all phases of human interest and accomplishment. Scientific and technological advancement has been greatly stimulated by the variety of theoretical analyses and practical solutions contributed by various cultures and in successive cultural epochs. In different environments and under different physical conditions men have devised a variety of explanations of natural phenomena. Each solution was a discovery or improvement, a mistake or a correction, and thus in some fashion a contribution to scientific progress. Early Greek speculative physics and metaphysics, Oriental mysticism, Christian cosmology, mediaeval alchemy and modern experimentalism, all led the searching mind in the general direction of the truth. Likewise, local differences in the appearance or character of the problem not only suggested different elements of the whole complex of nature, like pieces of a crossword puzzle, but, what was even more useful, also suggested underlying similarities of structure and process. Viewed in the perspective of the grand forward movement of science, even an authoritarian attempt to establish scientific truth by official proclamation may, in the role of a horrible example, have some corrective effect.

Mankind has also immeasurably profited from technological versatility. This has ranged in character from the crude solutions of practical problems to the insights of inventive genius. Although the continuous improvement of machines and techniques has occurred in response to the steady multiplication of needs and demands, it has in part been a gratuitous contribution of the creative imagination. The engineering sciences, though basically subject to the stern discipline of practical necessity, share to some extent in the freedom of the fine arts. The stimulating effects of new and competitive inventions have been cumulative: By inducing greater effort and further experimentation, they assured continued vitality and progress. The demonstrated success of different solutions of the same mechanical problem suggested the wisdom of alertness and openmindedness.

The history of science and technology has been a continuing warning to man never to settle back in the comfortable assurance that the best solution has been reached.

The benefits of variety and versatility are also of necessity carried over into the area of the indirect social effects of science and technology. The cave and the skyscraper, the horse and buggy and the aeroplane, the signal drum and the radio, each has in some direct or indirect way induced or affected a way of living. Variation and novelty in daily living, in turn, generated new interests and new demands which technology was expected to satisfy. The expression, "new frontiers of science and technology," is more than a figure of speech: It is the identification of an area in civilized life in which man once again plays the role of explorer, pathfinder and discoverer, and in which he repeatedly experiences the adventure and excitement of a new frontier. We are inclined to forget that the heart as well as the hand of man finds pleasure in the satisfactory solution of physical problems.

3.

When we turn to what is commonly called the realm of the spirit, the advantages of cultural diversity are found not to be diminished; rather they are increased and intensified. This was to be expected, since it is in the realm of the spirit that the reason and the imagination are allowed the maximum of freedom. Here reason and imagination join to explore the unrealized potentialities of the real and to create visions of the ideal. Here the human spirit "reshapes the world nearer to its heart's desire," even when that desire is unreasonable, hopelessly romantic or exotic. Though there are obstacles and limitations to human freedom, these are, for the most part, of the spirit's own making. It is principally human nature, and not external physical nature, by which the spirit of man is limited. Even when other men place limitations on his advocacy of his ideals or on his freedom of expression, the compulsion does not have the finality of physical nature; there is always the possibility of a change in the human equation. At critical periods, he can always withdraw into the refuge of his own consciousness.

In the area in which the life of the individual most closely touches the life of his fellow, in the realm of morals, cultural

history presents him with a record of moral customs and practices, the diversity of which is likely to have a sobering effect on his moral complaisance. When he subsequently undertakes to determine the ethical basis for his own morals and to pass judgment upon it, there are available to him the several diverse ethical systems of the great moralists. This notable record of the different conceptions of the good life offers an accumulation of moral experience and moral wisdom, in the revealing light of which thoughtful men can take the measure of their own thoughts and actions. Even for him who thinks there is only one answer to all moral questions, and that his own, there can be certainty only after comparison with those answers which have proved to be wrong.

It is not only in the realm of morals that man has sought theoretical understanding as well as practical guidance. Systems and part-systems of philosophy represent his most ambitious efforts at attaining an all-embracing comprehension of the universe. Each particular philosophic discipline undertakes to furnish final definitions in its own area, as elements out of which the philosophic whole is to be constructed. In reflecting upon the quantity and variety of the philosophic solutions which have been proposed, it is not without point to recall the assertion of an unfriendly critic that "there is no idea so absurd that has not been advanced by some philosopher." This is no doubt a just comment if the undisciplined, the irresponsible and the pathological "thinkers" are to be counted among the philosophers. Of the great classical philosophic writings it can justly be said, however, that they constitute a rich and varied record, with a remarkable degree of continuity, of man's most intensive, disciplined and ingenious efforts at "thinking himself through" the problems of existence. The fact that men are still partisans of rival philosophers and competing systems is proof enough of the value of philosophical diversity. The world being so complex and the scope and power of the human intellect so limited, the claim that such diversity is inevitable and necessary seems not unreasonable. For the professional philosopher himself, this rich inheritance of philosophic insight and skill is clearly invaluable. As for the layman, in every age many thoughtful people—though, to be sure, together constituting only a small minority

of mankind—have undertaken to direct the main current of their lives in accordance with some philosophic “view of life.”

However, contributions to theoretic understanding, both with respect to substance and technique, and to practical wisdom do not constitute the only values of philosophy. In the exercise of philosophical analysis and synthesis men have discovered a unique kind of intellectual pleasure, which may be described as the mental counterpart of that experienced in perfectly coordinated physical action and in ingenious and highly skillful manual construction. Thus the opportunities for the appreciation of the products of man’s intellectual power and ingenuity are also multiplied by the variety of man’s philosophic inheritance. It is pleasant to roam through the halls of philosophy even if one does not take up permanent residence in any one of them.

In the case of religion, men have traditionally not taken so favorable a view of diversity. Theological convictions and liturgical and institutional attachments have been associated with strong partisan emotions. The non-conformist has been the heretic and the unbeliever the enemy of all. In the case of the leaders, the assurance of being the mouthpiece of the supernatural has been a heady stimulant. And how could one be the defender of the faith without attacking, or, at least, confounding the enemy?

However, of our own times it can be said that much of mankind has attained a sufficient maturity to recognize the reasonableness of dissent and the virtue of tolerance. It is now not only the scholar, whose objectivity is after all a matter of professional necessity, but also a constantly increasing number of clergy and laymen of a variety of faiths who are recognizing the inherent value of religious diversity. They are realizing that in the variety of religious dogmas and liturgical practices there are revelations of the different ways in which man has sought to orient himself spiritually in this world, to comprehend his destiny, to order his life and to conceive and represent the worship the objects of his religious faith. It is not too much to say that the understanding and acceptance of religious differences is engendering a deeper and wiser, because more human, understanding of the function of religion.

It is in the realm of human institutions that the practical ad-

vantages of diversity are most clearly exhibited. To be sure, an institution, the church, for example, is in one sense a public profession of beliefs held in common. Likewise, political and economic institutions are expressions or reflections of group convictions, sometimes of systems of ideas of a high degree of abstractness. Concretely, however, institutions are groups of men in action. It is in deed and not in word that man most clearly reveals his desires and purposes. The history of social institutions, stripped of over-ingenious, abstract and artificial "interpretations," is a record of what groups of men have organized to do or to have done. It is a record of social experiments and their consequences, expected and unexpected. Moreover, it is the record not only of what man has tried to do but of what he has been able to do. Thanks to the diversity of these experiments, the record is an almost inexhaustible source of information on social action, available both to the scholar and the "social engineer," the individual and the group, the follower and the leader. It is a practical guide for the building or rebuilding of human institutions.

It is undoubtedly in the realm of art that the individual has had the greatest freedom to be his own particular and peculiar self. If we view the panorama of art as it has unfolded itself in time, it is clear that of all men the artist has enjoyed the greatest freedom. Much of the time he has had this freedom by default. At times, however, he has renounced social advantage, endured hardship and defied authority. Vested powers and established institutions have sometimes persecuted him as an enemy, sometimes exploited him as an ally. What the artist himself has praised as freedom, the plain citizen has often damned as license. But no matter how stern the control or how well organized, sooner or later he or his successors have escaped restraint and once more gone their own way, the way of the free creative artist.

This stubborn insistence of the artist on his right to complete freedom of self-expression accounts for the "individuality" of works of art and for the variety which makes academic classification of the arts practically impossible. At various times, art has been orderly and vagrant, domestic and decadent, conformist and revolutionary. The products of the artist have ranged from

the playful to the desperately serious. Moreover, it has never been possible to anticipate when a work of art would develop the influence of a moral force and have the consequences of a social revolution, even though, according to the artist, such a work was properly conceived in the professional spirit of "art for art's sake." In the matter of degree of conscious artistry, greater extremes could hardly be imagined: In music, for example, we find at one limit, the infinite pains and incredible genius of the symphony, at the other, the "naturalness" and spontaneity of the folksong. No better indication can be found of the diversity of artistic expression—illustrative, incidentally, of only a limited area of one of the arts—than the names of the various schools of modern painting: impressionism, cubism, academicism, expressionism, constructionism, surrealism, abstractionism, and a dozen others.

The diversity of art is probably the best measure of its value. For art has been mankind's most important medium of self-expression. As such it has been a healthy means of catharsis for the laboring human spirit. It has also been the great medium of self-revelation. In art we find the expression not only of what is unique in some individual, but, as has so often been said, of what is universal in all men, the all-human. This is why art is an inexhaustible source of knowledge to the student of mankind. This no doubt also accounts for the recurrent tendency of men to ascribe to the artist the occult power of the seer. Nothing could thus be farther from the spirit of art than the condemnation of its diversity. Nothing could do it more injury than regimentation. There could hardly be better evidence of the obtuseness and fanaticism of authoritarianism than its advocacy and practice of suppression of freedom in the realm of art.

This analysis of the advantages of cultural diversity in the most important areas in which the mind and body of man are active justifies the general conclusion that a world constituted of a variety of cultures is a more hospitable environment for the human spirit than a world dominated by a single culture. It is,

4.

to begin with, a more *natural* environment. The greater complexity of the human being as compared with the lower orders

of animals requires a greater variety of opportunities for expression and action. In the light of history, it seems much more likely that cultural variety is a response to a natural need of human beings than that it is an accident of nature, or merely an intermediate stage of development toward ultimate uniformity.

This need is the consequence not only of the complexity of the individual personality but of the nature of its life history. At different periods in its biological life it has different interests and, in consequence, requires different cultural forms for their satisfaction. But it is the great range of the differences between individuals and groups of individuals that constitutes the strongest proof of the need of cultural diversity. These differences are not only qualitative but also quantitative: The same need or urge differs in strength with individuals, a source, incidentally, of serious problems of social adjustment. The demand for freedom of the spirit is clearly the natural consequence of complexity and difference and of growth and development, in fact, of the nature of life itself.

The free and "natural" human spirit thus finds the world hospitable because it finds cultural diversity useful. It makes it possible for the individual to choose those forms of practical, intellectual and artistic expression which his personality needs or prefers. As a kind of by-product, this variety induces comparison, critical analysis and appraisal of one's own preferences, traditions and institutions in all the realms of cultural expression. The individual comes in this way to understand his relation to his own culture. This understanding either strengthens or weakens his loyalties. In either case, choice becomes intelligent and, within limits, free. And these are the conditions of human dignity.

Cultural diversity also holds more promise for the future than does cultural uniformity. In a world containing a variety of cultures, mankind is more likely to discover the true, the good and the beautiful, or the different tenable conceptions of them, than in a world with a single culture. Since there seem to be several different but equally reasonable answers to his questions, and a variety of ways of satisfying his needs and desires, cultural uniformity would be a handicap to progress. Even in the realm of the exact sciences, where the chance of agreement and

uniformity is the greatest, freedom of investigation, differences in approach and method, and competition of solutions have contributed to the attainment of ultimate agreement.

Because of cultural diversity, the world is also a more pleasant and interesting environment for the human spirit. Without being untrue to his own cultural commitments, the individual can examine other cultures and, if his understanding is sympathetic, savor the unique characteristics of cultures quite foreign to his own and thus enjoy them vicariously. Within limits, the individual can even select from other cultures and thus enrich his own. The enlargement of the self which results from such sympathetic appropriation certainly constitutes one of the glories of the human spirit.

As history has progressed, the opportunities for this enrichment have multiplied and the benefits have been compounded. Both the area and the tempo of influence have increased in something like geometrical ratio and in phase with such agencies of distribution as transportation and communication. We need but to recall how little time it took for Professor Toynbee's interpretation of history to become a general subject of discussion throughout the civilized world. The wide geographical spread of influence also resulted in increased complexity of response, since each cultural group reacted to this new doctrine in its own way, for example, in terms of its own religious or political dogmas.

In this world as we know it, every culture lives in the critical presence of every other culture. Progress is more likely to be advanced by freedom than by conformity. Complete commitment to one culture might well result in intellectual stagnation, moral automatism and mechanical imitation. There would be great danger that the sources of inspiration, originality and thus of wisdom, would dry up. Moreover, established cultural uniformity creates favorable conditions for the suppression of freedom in all phases of human life. Variety, on the contrary, invites and encourages freedom.

It is of course only too true that cultural diversity has been and will continue to be an important source of misunderstanding and discord. The reactions of men to differences in conviction, loyalty and preference range from daily manifestations of petty

intolerance to tragic and shameful conflicts. Men have hounded, tortured and slaughtered one another over the question as to whose God was the true God, or the greater. It would be a fatal mistake to forget, for one moment, how many and serious are the disadvantages of cultural diversity. An inventory and analysis of these is quite as important as of the advantages, for to know what they are is to know the occasions for much trouble and disunity among men.

However, certainly at this stage in human history and possibly for all time to come, the pressing practical problem is not the elimination of cultural differences but the correction of those intellectual and emotional attitudes and social habits associated with these differences which produce friction. The most dangerous is that which all cultural groups have in common: the assumption by each of the superiority and consequent greater authority of its own culture. Understanding and tolerance, on the other hand, generate an atmosphere in which superficial causes of friction can be eliminated and basic differences accepted as matters on which honest men can differ. In this way men can learn to make a virtue of what is, for the time being at least, a necessity.

Nothing would do more to promote this attitude to cultural diversity than a full appreciation of the advantages of cultural variety. Men would then strive to establish the unity in variety which, consciously achieved, is so much to be preferred over the variety which is the automatic result of identity. To be sure, this superior unity would not be complete unity. Cultural diversity of necessity implies a limited unity in limited variety. Such a cultural state of affairs would be a state of limited equilibrium, which could be established and maintained only in an atmosphere of good will and sympathetic understanding and by the effort of conscious choice, inflexible purpose and continuous adjustment. But certainly, in spite of the cost and the limitations, it is a unity which a free man will much prefer over the unity which is promised by the advocates of dogmatism and totalitarianism.

THE TEACHER-SCHOLAR IN THE FIELD OF MUSIC

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WHAT constitutes a "teacher-scholar"? Is the accent on his pedagogic or on his learned prowess? The task is to define the contribution that a teacher-scholar, in the field of music, may make towards a liberal arts program, that is, towards the preservation of a species which is becoming increasingly rare, the "educated man." It is axiomatic that only a true *teacher* can function with any degree of success in a training program for undergraduates. The perennial dilemma of administrators, "Are we in search of a man who inspires the students *or* of one with a long and impressive list of publications?" is based on a philosophy of "either-or" that ignores the ultimate educational aim.

To be a gifted teacher who is enthusiastic about his job of teaching is, perforce, a minimum requirement. But what traits of the scholar must be added to his leadership in the classroom? The range of scholarship is wide and broad, from the archivist, the librarian, the punctilious antiquarian, to the inspired interpreter and re-interpreter of greatness and beauty. Not one of the many facets of research can be airily dismissed, and not everybody who labors lengthily and patiently without immediate results can be written off as a dusty bookworm. Yet it is clear that out of the large community of scholars and researchers, only certain ones are properly eligible to teach liberal arts students. With courage and faith, our humanist will have to believe in the innate nobility of the human mind, dare to teach what has not been taught before and be able to communicate his excitement to young people without talking down to them or encumbering his message with unnecessary details. Admittedly, these considerations apply to all humanistic subjects, but the problem is particularly burning in the realm of music which is so recent a field of study in our colleges.

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In terms of enrolment and of setting the tone for more advanced offerings the Introductory Course is the backbone of a typical college music department. Popularly called "The Appreciation Course," a designation many of us deprecate, it is often, moreover, the only music course a college student finds time for in his four years. To meet this challenge the teacher-scholar must demonstrate his full grasp of the subject and must put his training to the crucial test by talking not *about* music, but by *talking music*.

There are those who maintain that music can be composed or performed but that any other pursuit is both superficial and wasteful. They argue that music cannot be talked, since its medium of expression is in tones, not words. Though there are occasions, they continue, where the musical ignorance of the general college student forces the teacher to reduce his instruction to a few pleasant and general remarks; even then his talk, by its very nature, is an intrinsically incomplete exposition of the subject, serving at the same time to entice a few of the students to go on to the real thing, namely, composition or performance. You will notice that here we have the basis for the kind of incidental chit-chat characteristic of so many intermission talks over the radio and program notes of phonograph albums and live symphony concerts, the kind of comment that may properly be called talk *about* music. This is where the mission of the teacher-scholar enters. He will refuse to talk about music because he will refuse to teach what is irrelevant. Rather, he will talk music, teach music and make music.

Why is it considered more difficult to talk music than, say, chemistry or painting? Neither the medium of chemistry nor that of painting is in words; nevertheless it is by the use of words that we explain chemical reactions and perspective in painting. As it takes a mind to handle test tubes or to sketch a painting, likewise it takes a mind to *understand* chemistry and painting. In order to reach that mind we must use words, but in doing so must tackle the subject itself, its underlying principles, its core of being. For the teacher-scholar, then, to talk music is synonymous with the analysis of musical style, with exposing the essence of music. The biographies of composers and the lore about first performances have a value only insofar as

they illuminate the grasp of music itself, while to dwell on social contexts and cultural cross-connections can only result in a set of empty generalizations if not supplemented by a minimum of musical knowledge. To discuss Debussy without reference to symbolist poetry and impressionist painting would be a grave mistake indeed, pedagogically and humanistically. Yet, such references can only gain real meaning if they are based on some understanding, at least, of Debussy's sonorous and tonal vocabulary. We cannot integrate music with the other humanities unless we have something to integrate. Of course, integration exists on all levels, but even at the introductory level some time must be given to the alphabet of music itself. No amount of sparkle, wit and brilliance can make up for the experience of an art.

For this reason the teacher-scholar who knows the difference between real talk and glib rhapsodizing insists on making his students literate in music; he insists on *teaching music*. Of the three basic concepts of the teacher-scholar, to talk music, to teach music and to make music, the second stresses that considerations of the various cross-connections between music and other fields must not crowd out the point of departure, the music itself. Students must be able to read the graph of musical notation and to follow the teacher's illustration on the piano or a phonograph record with the musical score. Clefs, sharps and flats are taught at the lowest level, because for the teacher-scholar all levels imply and demand some degree of understanding: we do not understand what we cannot read. Similarly, he will not reduce his explanation of formal structure to a pushbutton technique of identifying themes in tune-detective fashion but will insist on some comprehension of harmonic growth. To the teacher-scholar tonic and dominant are not shop-terms that may as well be saved for more advanced classes or for instruction in harmony; they are crucial and indispensable points of musical analysis. Select and simplify our teacher may, omit he cannot. The objective is, after all, to sharpen the student's perception and articulation. How can this be done if the main features of the studied music are omitted as "technical"? But teaching music does not mean stuffing musical technique down an unwilling victim's throat. A true scholar will reduce his material to

the irreducible minimum: to what is necessary for an initial degree of understanding, to the capacity of his audience and to the amount of information that can be made meaningful within the time allotted.

We have not talked, so far, about *making music*, by no means the least of the three activities that we postulate for the teacher-scholar. This is not a question of polished performances which are a necessary and distinguished contribution to the cultural life of town and gown. For these are events of a quasi-professional character, whereas the needs of the general student demand spontaneous music-making, done solely for the experience of the participant. This will be amateurish and imperfect, to be sure, but a true scholar will regard a sing or a play as a productive sample, not as an end in itself, and he will not permit excessive labor on a single piece to stand in the way of constantly enlarging the student's horizon. Even at the most introductory and elementary level, graphic and verbal representation alone are insufficient, and the experience of music, for the sake of understanding music, must be multiplied time and again if the understanding is not to remain anaemic.

Once again, the teacher-scholar performs an indispensable service, for it is to him that the college (as well as performers, publishers and popularizers) looks for a repertoire that extends beyond a few masterpieces which are repeated *ad infinitum* and *ad nauseam*. The general student will, under proper guidance, respond enthusiastically to what is still virgin territory for the public at large and to works that the non-scholar would relegate to the graduate school: the early polyphony of the Magnus Liber, the glories of the Italian and of the English madrigals, the theatrical sweep of the Baroque and, last in the chronology though by no means least, to contemporary music which the students approach with a burning interest and with the humility that is prerequisite to understanding.

The suggestion of such a wide scope of musical activity often calls forth "But there is so much in the standard repertoire that the general student ought first to know—this very new and very old stuff is valuable, to be sure, but why not leave it for more advanced stages of instruction, for graduate schools?" Whenever graduate schools are brought in by way of postponing a job

which needs doing in college it behooves us to become suspicious. The non-scholarly graduate-school-advocate more often than not reveals himself as only slightly acquainted with the type of institution to which he so lightly passes responsibility. The fundamental weakness of the position of him who says "Don't do it at the undergraduate level, do it later" is exposed by the students themselves in their genuine interest and eagerness to learn.

In conclusion, we may inquire into the characteristics that would qualify, in the community of scholars at large, those who are true teacher-scholars; that is those who, in addition to their attributes as researchers also have the ability to transmit the fruits of their work to the young. The faculty of judgment of what *not* to say, what *not* to do and what *not* to attempt becomes crucial. The amount of research material that is unsuitable for undergraduate teaching is enormous and the decision of what fits a publication but not the classroom must be made without prejudice. The genuine teacher-scholar represents the watershed between the all-out scholar who finds some degree of relevance in subjects that are on the surface uninteresting, and the non-scholar who is inclined to eschew unfamiliar material as a musicological study that belongs in graduate school.

We all know how little we can take for granted; our eighteen-year olds commit grave errors in spelling, syntax and logic in freshman English themes, let alone music; and their background of musical knowledge is scant, confused and not infrequently quite inaccurate. Yet, in the few semesters that are allotted we must impart to these young minds not only elements of basic knowledge and basic skills, but we must fuse these single elements into a sensible whole. This is not research but applied research, and the skillful application alone takes years of sweat and experimentation. The teacher-scholar must range over the whole field of professional publications as his raw material, select from it, and then proceed to talk music, teach music and make music. Or, to put it differently, to analyze musical style, to impart a minimum of technical knowledge and to encourage intelligent sight-reading. The hue of these three endeavors will not be professional nor even pre-professional, but truly humanistic in that they will awaken the latent intellectual and emo-

tional capabilities of young men and women who, by their self-fulfillment become transformed into true individuals.

The ideal of the individual, which has loomed so large in education since the days of the Renaissance, is an ideal of the mind, a mind that realizes itself and thereby its potential and actual contribution to society. Whether the opportunity for this mental growth is provided by a study of Palestrina or Michelangelo, of Schütz or Rembrandt, of Mozart or Goethe, of Stravinsky or Cocteau, is of minor importance. What does matter is the increased capacity to understand and to penetrate. If musical education is not going to rule itself out from the composite process of the liberal arts which transforms adolescents into individuals, it will have to provide men and women who are both incisive scholars and inspiring teachers. And if we are to formulate maximum standards towards which our profession is to strive, we must demand nothing less than that hyphenated hero, the teacher-scholar.

REPORT OF THE AMERICAN CONFERENCE OF ACADEMIC DEANS

MARY PHLEGAR SMITH

DEAN, HOLLINS COLLEGE

THE sixth meeting of the American Conference of Academic Deans was held at the Netherland Plaza Hotel in Cincinnati on January 9, 1950, with Dean Henning Larsen of the University of Illinois, Chairman, presiding. At the morning session the subject "The Liberal College and the Education of Women" was discussed by President George Dinsmore Stoddard of the University of Illinois and Dean Elizabeth Eckhardt May of Hood College. Following this, there was a discussion of future plans and programs for the Conference led by Dean Frank Kille of Carleton College and Dean Logan Wilson of Newcomb College.

The afternoon session was given over to a panel discussion of pre-professional education. Speakers were: Dean Victor A. Rapoport of Wayne University, Dean William S. Guthrie of Ohio State University, Dean Simeon E. Leland of Northwestern University, and Dean M. M. White of the University of Kentucky. The Conference passed resolutions calling upon the Association of American Colleges to place a higher priority on training more new doctors of medicine and offering its assistance to the survey of medical education sponsored by the American Medical Association and the Association of American Medical Colleges, to the end that a sounder program of preparation for entrance into the medical colleges may be achieved. They resolved further that the Conference "urge the Deans of each group of professional schools and colleges to coordinate their requirements for admission to the schools of their profession, giving special consideration to the values inherent in broad training; and urge the Deans in the separate professional areas to join together where possible in accepting common preparatory programs."

The officers for the coming year are: Chairman, Dean Logan Wilson of Sophie Newcomb College; Vice Chairman, Dean C. Scott Porter of Amherst College; Secretary, Dean Mary Phlegar

Smith of Hollins College; Treasurer, Dean W. E. O'Donnell of College of St. Thomas. The Executive Committee consists of Dean S. J. Wright, Hampton Institute; Dean Frank R. Kille, Carleton College; Dean O. Meredith Wilson, University of Utah; Dean J. J. Oppenheimer, University of Louisville; and Dean Henning Larsen, University of Illinois, *ex officio*.

ACADEMIC RETIREMENT AND RELATED SUBJECTS

REPORT ON A STUDY CONDUCTED BY A JOINT COMMITTEE OF THE
AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY PROFESSORS AND
THE ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN COLLEGES

THIS report contains a general discussion of problems connected with policies of American colleges and universities in regard to the retirement of members of their faculties. Many phases of such policies are touched upon, but a major portion of the report deals with (1) the age at which, or the period within which, retirement should normally occur; (2) the provisions to ensure an income for the retired faculty members; and (3) the treatment of exceptions.

Since this report is written for persons with experience in American institutions of higher learning, the wisdom of having some policy is taken for granted. It is the nature of that policy that needs clarification.

This report is presented in two sections: Section I, a general discussion of academic retirement, and Section II, a statement of principles underlying good academic practice in reference to retirement. Section I is itself divided into three portions: (A) a resumé of previous and present policies relating to academic retirement with emphasis on the present status of retirement policies in American colleges and universities; (B) an analysis of the reasons for the principles stated in Section II; and (C) a discussion of other problems connected with retirement policy and certain related topics such as group insurance, hospital insurance, Social Security, etc.

The exposition of the present status of retirement policies in American institutions of higher education is based largely upon studies by Rainard B. Robbins, the Director of this study, including his analysis of the replies to the Committee's questionnaires sent to administrative officers of colleges, to the chapters of the American Association of University Professors and some individual members and to annuitants of the Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association. In this connection the Committee wishes to express its deep appreciation to Dr. Robbins for his leadership

in this study, another of his many services to American higher education.

SECTION I

GENERAL DISCUSSION

A. The present status of retirement policies in American colleges and universities.

The first systematic attempt to develop retirement provisions for a large group of American colleges was made by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in 1906 and subsequent years as a result of a munificent gift of Andrew Carnegie. The Foundation provided free retirement allowances for faculty members who retired from any one of a list of accepted colleges and universities after having served in such colleges for a stipulated period. Institutions were accepted if they met certain conditions: conditions providing not only for a standard of educational excellence but also for exclusion on certain grounds, such as sectarian affiliation.

It should be noted in particular that the annual retirement allowance was originally to have been \$400 plus 50% of the average salary of the faculty member during his last years of service and that this allowance became available to professors with 15 years of service upon retirement any time after the age of 65. It soon became apparent that the number of prospective annuitants was already greater than could be provided for under the then current pension rules by the fund available at that time, and, consequently, the list of eligible recipients was closed in 1918 and the amount of the annuities decreased for those not already receiving annuities. Moreover, the maximum annuity was restricted to those retiring at the age of 70 or over.

The disappointment of many who expected more than they received and the, perhaps belated, adjustments to correct the over-extended financial obligations that would have been incurred if the original plan had been adhered to should not blind one to the great service of the Foundation's pension plan, particularly to these facts: (1) Over 4500 pensioners (including widows) have already benefited by pensions from the Foundation and there are still about 700 active teachers on the eligible list for pensions upon retirement. As of June, 1949, the total benefits

paid had exceeded \$55,000,000. (2) Even the present amount of pensions is more than many college annuity systems afford from the institution's contribution. (3) As an example of how much a retirement system could mean not only to the individual but to the institution, the Carnegie plan and the closing of its lists led to a steady effort to develop satisfactory retirement systems. Its very weaknesses helped indicate the necessary attributes of a good plan.

As a direct consequence of this experience, and financed in part by the Carnegie Foundation and the Carnegie Corporation, the Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association was established in 1918 as an instrumentality for the financial management of annuity plans for American colleges. This Association has not only served in this capacity but has provided the thought and leadership which have resulted in the development of many good plans in American colleges. Until about a decade ago the typical retirement plan called for contributions of 5% of salary by the individual and 5% by the institution, and retirement annuities were based upon the accumulation of these contributions. Originally, both the rate of accumulation and the purchase rate for an annuity were guaranteed throughout the life of the contract with the individual. Initially, these rates were such that, for example, a person entering upon such a retirement plan at age 30, continuing to teach until 65, and periodically receiving increases in salary until it was twice what it was at 30, would receive an annuity of at least 50% of his terminal salary and considerably more than that if retirement were as late as 70.

Many institutions adopted this plan. Others either came under some state or other governmental or church plan, or started their own. These were usually less adequate than the plans associated with the T.I.A.A. Many other institutions adopted no plan, sometimes caring on an *ad hoc* basis for those with long service and often continuing staff members after they should have been retired.

It might fairly be said that in the early 1920's it looked as if American higher education was on the way to solving the retirement problem, although much had to be done to persuade institutions to take the necessary steps. However, this solution was dependent upon the approximate maintenance of the then

current interest rates, the accuracy of the then accepted tables for the expected longevity of annuitants and the stability of the value of the dollar. None of these conditions was fulfilled. Interest rates have fallen so that far less can be accumulated on invested funds. There has been an increase in the life expectancy of annuitants, and the value of the dollar has decreased so that the early contributions do not yield as much in purchasing power upon retirement as was expected. As a result, in many cases the present situation of those retiring varies from a disappointingly stringent financial condition to the tragic.

We should point out that this second systematic plan for retirement had implicit within it the assumption that the retirement age should be 65 or older and the retiring allowance at least 50% of the salary at retirement. However, it provided for annuities at earlier retirement dates, corresponding to accumulated contributions.

This sketch of how we reached the present situation should be supplemented by a description of the situation. A word of warning is necessary. It is almost impossible to make statements that are both clear-cut and universally true as to actual practices. For instance, when an institution declares "retirement is optional at 65, compulsory at 70," it may mean that the individual has the option or that the administration of the institution has, or both. Some institutions would consider under this reply that 65 was normal but exceptions could be made up to 70 while others would mean that 70 was normal but a few were asked to retire earlier. Hence, the Committee must ask for tolerance, if at times its statements are somewhat inconclusive, or when positively made are subject to individual exceptions. It is believed, however, that the general picture given by this report is correct.

Over 10% of more than 200 institutions answering questionnaires had no compulsory retirement age. Of the remainder, more than half had a compulsory retirement age of 70, about a third 65 and most of the rest 68. Where the compulsory retirement age is over 65, it is usual to have 65 as an optional retirement age—"optional" subject to the uncertain interpretation described in the preceding paragraph.

Of about one thousand T.I.A.A. annuitants now between 65 and 75 answering the Committee's questionnaire, the average age

of retirement was 67. The median was also 67, and the first and last deciles 65 and 70, respectively. Some had evidently retired before the compulsory retirement age.

The Committee knows of no study that gives a statistical account of the amounts actually received by retired faculty members under the various systems.

It may be pointed out that if we assume that a person started teaching at 30 and received each year an increase of salary equal to 5% of his initial salary until he was 65 and then no increases until retirement (for instance a starting salary of \$2,000 and at 65 a salary of \$5,500), his retirement allowance at 65 under the original contract of the T.I.A.A. issued from 1919 to 1927 would be 52% of his retiring salary (of \$5,500) whereas under contracts now being issued, if interest and annuity rates remain constant, it would be 24%. If retirement is at 70, the percentages would be 85% and 36%, respectively, of \$5,500. (If the current rates of dividends are maintained, the picture is somewhat more favorable.) If shortly before or after retiring there is a strong inflationary period with increases in cost of living and salaries, the real value of the retiring allowance and of savings will be drastically reduced. This has happened in the case of those who have retired recently or who are about to retire.

The answers to the questionnaire sent to the T.I.A.A. annuitants clearly indicate that in many cases their financial situation is desperate. On the other hand, college administrators were asked, "Do you consider prospective retirement benefits reasonably adequate under your present plan?" Of the 200 replying, 54% answered yes. It is the belief of this Committee that less than 54% of all American colleges make reasonably adequate retirement provisions for their faculties.

It should be noted that many of our stronger institutions have recently increased substantially the amount of their contributions. In some instances this increase has not been accompanied by increases in the contribution from the individual.

It is difficult to find out what proportion of teachers are covered by plans of various types. In many systems junior staff members are not covered during initial teaching periods of various lengths. About 60% of the American colleges have some retirement system, and these institutions employ about 85% of

the college teachers; but many of the latter, as noted, belong to the junior staff and are not covered by the retirement system. About 46% of college teachers are in institutions using T.I.A.A. contracts and 22% are in institutions covered by publicly administered plans. As noted, about half of the remainder are in institutions with no plan.

In one important respect, aside from amount of contributions and benefits, the T.I.A.A. plan differs from most other plans administered either publicly or by individual colleges. Under the T.I.A.A. and a few other plans the contributions of both individual and institution are unconditionally deposited for the benefit of the individual or his beneficiaries and are not jeopardized by his change from one institution to another or withdrawal from teaching before retirement. In most public systems this is true only of the individual's own contribution.

As to other types of benefits, for nearly twenty years, group life insurance has grown in popularity in the college, frequently with the amount of insurance proportional to salary. For about a dozen years a death benefit that decreases with advancing years has gained in popularity. Such a benefit supplements the growing accumulation at death under a retirement annuity contract. In recent years the hospitalization plans of the Blue Cross and similar organizations have been widely adopted.

So far Federal Social Security excludes college faculties from both the old age and survivorship provisions and from unemployment compensation.

It is a remarkable fact that over 50% of the T.I.A.A. annuitants replying to the questionnaire have engaged in professional employment since retirement. This is due in large part to war-time conditions, affecting the demands for trained personnel.

B. Analysis of reasons underlying statement of principles given in Section II.

It would clearly be desirable for the work of an individual to be adjusted both to his capacity for usefulness to the community and to his personal satisfaction. It is also desirable that financial and physical requirements of individuals be cared for at a reasonably high standard and at all ages. In attaining these desirable aims, the primary responsibility for himself and for

his family lies with the adult individual and the chief responsibility of society in this matter is to provide conditions under which an individual of capacity and industry may succeed in fulfilling his personal responsibility.

However, many agencies of society cooperate directly toward these ends. This is good. Some governmental agencies are created in part for this purpose. It is wise employment policy to enhance the welfare of the employee in these respects in that it advances both the interest of the employee and the purposes of the employing institution.

The chief purpose of educational institutions is to further the public welfare through (1) the education of youth, (2) the advancement of learning, (3) those public services that are the natural outgrowth of scholarship. The retirement policy of an institution in regard to its faculty and the provisions it makes for retired faculty members and their dependents should be planned primarily to aid in fulfilling these purposes. This may be done through: (1) enhancing faculty morale, (2) increasing the freedom of the faculty member from extraneous pressures, (3) making more feasible the complete devotion of his service to an institution, (4) making the academic profession, and the particular institution as well, attractive to men and women of scholarly ability, (5) protecting the institution against the employment of faculty members beyond the years of effective service.

If such benefits are to accrue both to American education and to the individual institution, the retirement plan of the college should be such that:

- (1) No large proportion of faculty members be retired considerably before their effectiveness is markedly diminished and no large proportion of faculty members remain in service after that time.
- (2) Those who have been engaged in teaching over a full working life be guaranteed a financial provision that will take care under normal circumstances of minimal reasonable needs.
- (3) No handicap be placed on the desirable movement of individuals from institution to institution or into or out of the teaching profession.
- (4) The provisions of the plan be well understood by the faculty, particularly as to: (a) The age of retirement

- and the basis of exceptions if any, (b) Financial provisions upon retirement.
- (5) The discretionary provisions of the plan cannot be used as tools for caprice or arbitrariness on the part of an administration.
 - (6) The plan be applied uniformly to the administrative officers as well as other faculty members.
 - (7) The plan be administratively practical.
 - (8) No changes in the plan be made that are unfavorable to individuals without provision of a reasonable period or reasonable financial means for adjustment.

Retirement Age

In Section II of this report the Committee recommends that the retirement age be fixed, that exceptions rarely if ever be made to prolong service beyond this fixed age, and that exceptions requiring earlier retirement should be on recommendation of a Committee of faculty and administration with no interested parties on the Committee.

Because of the variability in the duration of human effectiveness, the Committee's conclusion that there should be a fixed retirement age was reached with some reluctance and with due appreciation of the fact that the ease of administration had entered into its thinking. However, in a system with a discretionary period, too frequently (1) past services are considered more than present effectiveness, (2) faculty sensibilities are injured, (3) the administration may make prejudiced decisions (and will always be thought to have done so); this allows a possible threat to good tenure practice and hence to academic freedom as well as to faculty morale, (4) faculty members will plan financially for retirement towards the end of the optional period and may often be required to retire earlier with consequent financial and psychological maladjustment, (5) custom will make either the beginning or the end of the optional period usual, hence tending to a fixed retirement age without the clarity of understanding provided by there being such a determination.

There seems to be common agreement that if there is a fixed retirement age it should be between 65 and 70 inclusive. The Committee believes that under present circumstances (falling interest rates, increasing longevity, general vigor or members of the profession) 65 is too early for a compulsory retirement age, but it

should not be later than 70. Some argue that if retirement is as early as, or earlier than 65, it allows one to adjust to a new, gainful occupation. The Committee does not find this argument controlling. Many cannot make such an adjustment, but even if it were commonly possible, then the most socially useful occupation for most faculty members would still be the one in which they have the most training and experience, namely, teaching and scholarship. In this matter one must remember that not only can an individual increase his savings as he continues to teach after 65, but that in a contributory retirement plan the additional contributions, the interest accumulations and the lowering rates for the purchase of annuities usually combine to increase the retirement annuity by about 10% for each additional year of service.

The consensus of the Committee is that if no financial considerations entered the picture, around 68 would be the best fixed retirement age, and that the financial considerations would indicate an older rather than a younger age.

It is clear that the conclusions of the Committee are relevant to present conditions, not to conditions of the future if these should markedly change. In particular, if science should make it possible not only to prolong life, but to prolong the period of physical and mental vigor, institutions should recognize the fact by increasing the age of retirement.

The Committee believes strongly that with required education taking a longer and longer period of youth, and the proportion of people of advanced years increasing, the productive period of life should be prolonged as far as it effectively can be.

Occasionally it will be necessary, because of early disability, to make an exception calling for compulsory retirement before the automatic retirement age is reached. Provisions for a committee of faculty members and administrative officers to consider such cases is a protection to the individual faculty member and even greater protection to the administration.

The Committee believes that there should be no difference between administrative officers and teachers in regard to retirement age. Some institutions have tended to retain administrative officers past normal retirement age. This not only tends to impairment in faculty morale, but rarely provides vigorous admin-

istrative leadership. Some of the Committee feel that consideration should be given to the relieving of administrative officers from administrative duties prior to normal retirement age, while retaining them as teachers until such age is reached.

A problem somewhat beyond the province of this Committee is created by the large number of persons past normal retirement age serving on boards of trustees of colleges and universities. The service of some of these persons is outstanding, but it can well be questioned whether the very decisions, as to retirement age, which they make for their businesses and for the institutions which they serve, may not have validity as regards their membership on governing boards.

Retirement Annuities

The next major topic considered by the Committee was the nature of the financial provisions for income after retirement. Perhaps an argument could be made that financial support after retirement is an individual problem, that over the course of his working years an individual can be expected to save enough to take care of his old age and that if he fails to do so he is the one to suffer. Actually, however, the institution has a great stake in the welfare of its retired staff members. This arises from many causes, three of which are: (1) The opinion of colleagues, administrative officers and alumni will not permit a person who has served the institution well and has been a friend of many of its members to retire into abject poverty. Many individuals will not provide adequately for their own future. Hence, without some guaranteed retirement provision faculty members will continue to teach long after their work could be done more effectively by younger men. (2) The presence of a considerable number of retired faculty members living in poverty would depress the general morale of the faculty, tending to produce not only unhappiness on the staff but also temptation for its members to engage in outside remunerative activities that decrease their services to the institution. (3) Favorable retirement plans are not only necessary to enable an individual college to meet the competition of other colleges, but are necessary in general for American education to meet the competition of industry and government.

Moreover, this Committee believes the general movement towards seeking greater security for the individual is socially good and that institutions of learning should lead in such matters.

However, it is clear that colleges cannot treat the provident less generously than the improvident, take account of whose tastes are expensive and whose simple, tell the bachelor he should have had children or underwrite alimony. Everything beyond a certain minimum amount must be cared for by the individual. Moreover, even if colleges may seek to find ways to alleviate the difficulties caused by inflation, they can do little to plan for this in advance.

In any plan, care should be taken not to handicap the mobility of the profession. Much is gained not only by the healthy stimulus of competition between institutions but also by the enrichment resulting from the presence within an institution of staff members of varied backgrounds and experience. A faculty member should not have a vested financial interest in remaining fixed: rather, he should have a vested interest in increments of retirement income corresponding to service already rendered to society, so that his prospects of adequate income when services finally cease will be independent of whether or not he remains with a particular institution.

The members of the staff of an institution should be aware of the problems of retirement and of the provisions for retirement at their college as well as the limitation of these provisions. This consciousness is increased by being participant contributors to the plan. With these considerations in mind, the Committee believes that annuities for retiring faculty members should be provided by a system with compulsory contributions from both individuals and institutions, that the amount accumulated from these contributions should be fully vested in the individual, and that the benefit that would normally be expected upon retirement after a full period of service should be sufficient under usual conditions to meet the minimal reasonable requirements of living.

As a normal goal the retirement system should provide enough income to yield to a man who entered it at 30 and retired at the fixed retirement age of about 70 a retirement annuity of 50%

of his average salary over the last ten years of his service. If the fixed retirement age is under 70, the retirement annuity should if anything be a greater percentage of the terminal salary.

Fifty per cent has, of course, no occult virtue, but it was not picked arbitrarily. When a faculty member retires, his children are usually self-supporting. He may be compared to a young instructor whose family responsibilities have not become heavy. Most American institutions do not pay instructors more than enough to meet the minimal reasonable requirements of living. In many institutions the average instructor's salary is somewhat less than 50% of the average professor's salary. Moreover, it is to be remembered that if the accumulation upon retirement would purchase a life annuity for the professor of 50% of his terminal salary, it will purchase less than that if an annuity is to continue to a surviving widow. Fifty per cent of the average salary for the last ten years of service would not seem too great a normal goal for an annuity in a plan for a retirement system. In addition it may be noted that in most replies to the questionnaires, administrators and chapters of the American Association of University Professors accept 50% of terminal salary as a reasonable goal for a retirement system.

Some may be surprised that the Committee recommends a higher retirement allowance for institutions with low retirement ages, especially when it is realized that a much greater annual contribution is necessary to secure the same retirement allowance at a lower age. However, it should be remembered that usually the period of maximum saving on the part of the individual is between 60 and 70, since his earnings are then at a maximum while the expense of rearing his family has generally ceased and his awareness of the imminence of retirement is increasing. Moreover, in view of the greater life expectancy the individual's savings must be greater at 65 than at 70 to allow equally good provision for retirement.

The Committee wishes to emphasize what it means by full vesting in the individual of the contributions made in his name. The plan should be such that if an individual dies before becoming an annuitant his beneficiaries or estate will get the full accumulation, with interest, of his own and the institution's contribution. If the individual should withdraw or be dismissed

from the institution before retirement, the full accumulation with interest of these contributions should be vested in him to become the basis of an annuity upon retirement or, in case of prior death, of a death benefit. However, the Committee believes that the individual should not have the right to withdraw his equity in cash but only in the form of life annuities. An exception might be made of very small accumulations in order to avoid undue accounting expenses. The practice of paying death benefits, when substantial in amount, to the widow in the form of an annuity is probably wise. It is usual to pay death benefits to beneficiaries other than the widow in the form of cash.

The Committee believes that the individual funding of contributions is a principle of major importance. Only in this way can desirable flexibility of adjustment of individuals to institutions be maintained. The Committee deplores the fact that many public systems do not make provisions for this individual funding, but recognizes that in this matter the administrations of public institutions are frequently restricted by state or municipal laws.

Clear and Well-Known Provisions

The Committee wishes to emphasize the need of a clear understanding of college retirement policies and plans on the part of the faculty and administration. A clear understanding will require a clear formulation of policies and plans and a clear statement to the faculty. This is necessary, but it is not sufficient. The problem of getting into the minds of men information that is both readily available and important to them is one of the most baffling. If scholars would show, in learning what is important to their personal business and welfare, a small fraction of the industry they use in studying their field of scholarship, many of these difficulties would be solved. In their replies to the questionnaire most of those who had retired showed considerable thought about the problems of retirement, but in many cases neither the administrative officers of colleges nor the chapters of the American Association of University Professors showed much evidence of exact knowledge or clear thought in regard to the retirement policy and plan of the colleges.

The Committee would particularly emphasize the necessity of making equitable provisions for any staff member who may be adversely affected by a change in the retirement policy or plan of the institution with which he is associated. When long inattention is suddenly changed into action, long-time policies are sometimes initiated without reasonable provisions for those adversely affected. If, for instance, it has been customary to allow faculty members to teach until well after 70, and a fixed retirement age of, say, 68 is suddenly established, all of those past or nearing that age have their expectations suddenly changed unless special financial provisions are made for them or the plan is initiated gradually.

No policy will be satisfactory unless the administrations of institutions are considerate and humane in its application.

In concluding this discussion of standards of retirement, the description of present conditions concerning retirement given in part A may be compared with the standards recommended.

The retirement age of colleges with retirement policies appears to lie between 65 and 70, with too many, under present conditions, at 65. For colleges without systems, too many permit services beyond 70. Moreover, many have an optional period, a sort of limbo, where one cannot know what to expect. The methods of making exceptions to current rules are neither understood nor such as to preclude administrative arbitrariness or faculty apprehension. With present interest rates and present cost of annuities, few plans provide as much as the Committee recommends, even without taking into account the changes caused by inflation. To secure greater annuities under a contributory funded plan it would be necessary to increase contributions or increase the age of retirement or both. Most public systems are at fault in not vesting fully in the individual the contributions both of the individual and of the institution. Fortunately, most plans are jointly contributory.

C. Other topics.

There are a number of topics related to retirement and faculty welfare that the Committee has studied, with varying degrees of intensity, but has not included in the statement of principles which it is recommending for adoption by the Ameri-

can Association of University Professors and the Association of American Colleges. Brief discussions of some of these follow.

Topics related to the college retirement policy and plan.

1. Proportion of contributions made by college and by individual.

The general practice is for the institution and the individual to make the same contribution. This is not universal. Some private institutions have recently increased their contribution without requiring greater contributions from staff members. When the institution's share is larger, the individual's current income tax is smaller than if he received this money as a salary and then contributed it to the system, but his probable taxes after retirement are greater. It seems generous for an institution to increase its contribution beyond that of the individual, but this increase usually is paid from funds that otherwise would be available for salaries. It is administratively easier to increase the contribution of the institution without securing the faculty agreement that should be reached before increasing the individual's contribution. Good practice certainly can allow some leeway in this regard, but both contributions should be substantial. Public systems frequently have complicated formulas to determine the institution's contribution, and in some cases specify annuities to be supported by the institution. Of course it is clear that when the institution's contribution is not vested in the individual any increase in this contribution is partly illusory.

2. Protection of Widow.

In the cases where all contributions are vested in the individual the participant's beneficiaries have the protection in case of his death before retirement of the accumulations from these contributions. At retirement the general practice allows for annuities which cover both the life of the individual and the life of his wife. These are, of course, less in amount than an annuity on a single life. The further protection of the family is an obligation of the individual.

3. Administration of a Retirement Plan.

The Committee is impressed with the wisdom of using an organization with experience in the annuity business for the finan-

cial management of a retirement plan. This is especially important in the case of small colleges, where the fluctuations of longevity and the complications of actuarial work may seriously embarrass the institution.

4. Tapering-off work.

The suggestion is frequently made that institutions should consider providing a tapering-off period for older teachers by decreasing their work load and, in the case of teachers who are continued in service after the age of retirement, with a corresponding decrease in salary.

The Committee believes this suggestion worthy of study, and points out that in such a study the following facts must be considered: (a) At present, although the duties of older teachers may remain unchanged formally, their actual work load frequently decreases. This comes about through a decrease in that part of a teacher's work load which he carries without formal requirement such as research and the revision of courses; through decrease in committee assignments; and through consideration on the part of younger colleagues. (b) If a tapering-off process is used to *prolong* the services of a teacher beyond the normal age of retirement, his work should be so assigned as not to interfere with the freedom of younger members of the staff to develop their own work and that of their departments, i.e., the teacher continued in service after reaching the age of retirement should have no responsibility for directing the work of younger teachers of the department and should not preempt courses to the detriment of the professional welfare of younger colleagues.

5. Research and Office Facilities.

One of the greatest contributions an institution can make to the happiness and usefulness of those who retire while still vigorous is to provide facilities for continued scholarly work.

6. Clearing House for Talents.

A suggestion worthy of careful consideration is frequently made by those who recognize the validity of the argument for a fixed retirement age but who see the loss to society in retiring many who are still mentally active and physically vigorous. They suggest that the administrative problems and the problems in faculty morale which come from continuing faculty members past the age of retirement do not arise when these teachers re-

ceive appointments at other institutions, especially at institutions with an older retirement age; and that facilities should be created for aiding the appointment of able and vigorous retired faculty members to other institutions or to positions in industry where their special abilities are of value. It should be kept clearly in mind that this suggestion concerns exceptional cases and should not be used as an excuse for lowering the normal retirement age of an institution.

7. Education for Old Age.

The proportion of the American population beyond the age of 65 or 70 is rapidly increasing. The education of youth is largely pointed toward the middle years of life. The activities of these middle years often tend to unfit rather than prepare people for retirement. This is a problem that should be taken seriously by both individuals and society. Education for the latter years of life is a challenge that American educational institutions have not met. They should meet it. No fitter students exist for an initial attempt than their own faculty members.

Emergency adjustments created by inflation

Our retirement plans are constructed to provide a certain dollar income rather than a certain real income. Hence, a decrease in the value of a dollar creates serious hardship for retired staff members and those about to retire. The Committee has not tried to formulate a policy to meet this hardship because of a wide variation in the financial problems of American institutions and the legal limitations placed upon them. While not desiring to treat more generously those that have been negligent financially than those who have been provident, we urge institutions to do all in their power to alleviate this serious situation. The impact of inflation on this and other educational problems should be considered jointly by the American Association of University Professors and the Association of American Colleges.

Other welfare provisions

1. Employment policy during illness.

The Committee recognizes that in small institutions the incidence of staff members with prolonged illness, although some-

times embarrassing, is infrequent, and even in large institutions the number so incapacitated at any given time is usually small. Hence, it is rare to have a fixed policy on this matter. If no such policy is fixed by law, the Committee can only urge that institutions act, as they usually do, in a humane and generous manner.

2. Permanent disability.

Little has been done formally to make financial provision for permanently disabled staff members in American institutions of higher education. A few institutions have some definite plan. This problem, though arising seldom, is serious and should be studied by institutions.

3. Group Life Insurance.

The Committee believes that institutions should study the opportunities of collective and group life insurance. They as well as the individual have an interest in the matter for reasons similar to those that make financial provisions for retirement desirable. For institutions where the accumulations under the retirement plan are benefits in case of death before retirement and hence form an increasing protection to the staff member's family, a form of collective life insurance decreasing with age has great merit.

4. Group Hospital and Surgical Plans.

These are either conducted independently as a health service in large institutions or are under some plan such as the Blue Cross, etc., and are recommended for consideration.

Colleges and Social Security

The Committee believes that colleges and universities should be covered by the old age and survivorship provisions of the Federal Social Security Act.

It is sometimes alleged that it would be impossible for colleges to come under the old age or survivorship provisions of the Act without also being subject to the provisions dealing with unemployment. The Committee sees no reason why this should be the case. However, the majority of the Committee believes that if in order to come under these old-age and survivorship provisions it is necessary also to come under the unemployment provisions of the Act, it would still be desirable to do so. Many of

the Committee believe that it would be desirable of itself for colleges to come under the unemployment compensation provisions of the Social Security Act.

Non-Faculty Employees

The Committee recommends that the following statement be and recommendations contained in this report apply to non-faculty employees of colleges as well as to faculty members.

SECTION II

ACADEMIC RETIREMENT

The Committee recommends that the following statement be endorsed by the American Association of University Professors and the Association of American Colleges:

Academic Retirement—Statement of Principles

Institutions of higher education are conducted for the common good and not to further the interest of either the individual teacher or administrator, or the individual institution. The policy of an institution for the retirement of faculty members and its plan for their retirement annuities should be such as to increase the effectiveness of its services as an educational institution. Specifically, this policy and plan should be such as to attract individuals of the highest abilities to educational work, to increase the morale of the faculty, to permit faculty members with singleness of purpose to devote their energies to serving their institution and to make it possible in a socially acceptable manner to discontinue the services of members of the faculty when their usefulness is undermined by age.

The following is acceptable practice:

1. The retirement policy and annuity plan of an institution should be clearly defined and be well understood by both the faculty and the administration of the institution.
2. The institution should have a fixed and relatively late retirement age, the same for teachers and administrators. Conditions such as longevity, health of the profession and interest rates have been changing in such a way as to justify older rather than younger retirement ages. Under present circumstances (as of March 1950) the de-

sirable fixed retirement age would appear to be from sixty-seven to seventy, inclusive. Extension of the services of the teacher or administrator beyond the mandatory age of retirement should be authorized only in emergency situations. Circumstances that may seem to justify the involuntary retirement of a teacher or administrator before the fixed retirement age should in all cases be considered by a joint faculty-administrative committee of the institution. This committee should preferably be a standing committee, but in the consideration of specific cases no interested person should be permitted to participate in its deliberations. (The above is not meant to indicate that the involuntary return of an administrator to teaching duties need be treated as a retirement.)

3. The institution should provide for a system of retirement annuities. Such a system should:
 - (a) Be financed by contributions made during the period of active service by both the individual and the institution.
 - (b) Be participated in by all full-time faculty members who have attained a certain fixed age, not later than 30.
 - (c) Be planned to provide under normal circumstances for a retirement life annuity of approximately 50% of the average salary over the last 10 years of service, if retirement is at 70, and a somewhat higher percentage if the fixed retirement age is younger. (It is understood that the amount of the available joint life annuity on life of husband and wife would be somewhat less.)
 - (d) Ensure that the full amount of the individual's and institution's contribution, with the accumulations thereon, be vested in the individual, available as a benefit in case of death while in service, and with no forfeiture in case of withdrawal or dismissal from the institution.
 - (e) Be such that the individual may not withdraw his equity in cash but only in the form of an annuity. (To avoid administrative expense, exception might be made for very small accumulations in an inactive account.) Except when small, death benefits to a widow should be paid in the form of an annuity. Death benefits to other beneficiaries would normally be paid in cash unless provided to the contrary by the individual faculty member.

4. When a new retirement policy or annuity plan is initiated or an old one changed, reasonable provision either by special financial arrangements or by the gradual inauguration of the new plan should be made for those adversely affected.

Director of the Study

Rainard B. Robbins, former Vice-President, Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association

For the American Association of University Professors

Ralph E. Himstead, General Secretary

Edward C. Kirkland, Professor of History, Bowdoin College

William T. Laprade, Professor of History, Duke University

George Pope Shannon, Associate Secretary

For the Association of American Colleges

Everett N. Case, President, Colgate University

Robert P. Daniel, President, Virginia State College

Mark H. Ingraham, Dean, College of Letters and Science, University of Wisconsin

R. McAllister Lloyd, President, Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association

Francis L. Meade, President, Niagara University

Ottis H. Rechard, Dean, College of Liberal Arts, University of Wyoming

Guy E. Snavely, Executive Director

Edward J. Sparling, President, Roosevelt College

William E. Stevenson, President, Oberlin College

NATIONAL ROSTER OF PROSPECTIVE COLLEGE TEACHERS

Below is given the list of seniors recommended by member colleges as persons who should be encouraged to do graduate work with the idea of preparation for college teaching. These nominations are made in conformity with the program approved by the Association at its annual meeting in January, 1945. The chief features of the program are:

Arrangements will be made by the candidate selected, in consultation with officers of his own college, to enter graduate school for at least one year's training for college teaching. His studies during this first year will be carried on primarily from the point of view of preparation for college teaching rather than of meeting the formal requirements for an advanced degree.

Each college will be concerned with helping those appointed find a practical solution of whatever financial problems may be involved.

Each college will undertake to offer each candidate it selects a one-year appointment to follow immediately after the year's graduate work. During this year the one appointed will be given opportunities for "in-service training" by serving either as an Assistant in the department of his special interest—thus coming in close contact with experienced teachers—or as an Instructor in charge of one or more classes under the supervision of a regular member of the department. Each college will determine the amount of compensation in each case, having in mind that the purpose of the arrangement is to provide opportunities for the one appointed and not to meet the institution's need for instructors.

At the end of this two-year period, as a result of his experience in graduate work and in the work of actual teaching, and with the help of his advisers, the student should be in a position to make a wise decision as to whether his life work should be in teaching, and if so, what type of further training he should undertake.

<i>State</i>	<i>Institution</i>	<i>Student</i>
ALABAMA	Birmingham-Southern College	John P. Pool
	Spring Hill College	Ernest Ferlita
	Tuskegee Institute	Robert G. Brown
ARKANSAS	Hendrix College	Charles L. Hamilton
		Robert L. Jones

<i>State</i>	<i>Institution</i>	<i>Student</i>
CALIFORNIA	La Verne College	Oscar R. Slifer, Jr.
	Pasadena College	Helen Louise Vallon
	Pomona College	John Wilson Wallace
	St. Mary's College	Alan Thornton
		Donald E. Rauber
		Joseph M. Zanetti
COLORADO	Colorado College	Mary Katherine Daehler
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA	Dunbarton College of Holy Cross	Mary Moroni
	Georgetown University	William P. Blatty
		Paul E. Sigmund
	Howard University	Melba Chloe
		Preston Talbert
FLORIDA	University of Florida	Lawrence Levy
		Carl Schultz
GEORGIA	Georgia Institute of Technology	John G. Carver
	La Grange College	Ulysses Virgil Henderson, Jr.
		Kathleen Pope Blu
ILLINOIS	Knox College	Thomas Kurtz
		Edward Sainati
	Lake Forest College	Eleanor Marie Dilts
		Patricia Lane Wells
	Monmouth College	Ralph R. Tingley
	Southern Illinois University	Richard Newby
		Carolyn Reinhold
		Doris Schwinn
		Carl Swisher
	Wheaton College	George W. Johnson
		Julius Poppinga
INDIANA	Butler University	Robert Chittick
		Frank Madinger
	Evansville College	James A. Fowler
	Franklin College	Marvin E. DeBoer
		John C. Richards
	Taylor University	Carl Hassel
	Valparaiso University	William L. Leoschke
		Eugene Mueller
IOWA	Central College	Rolla Gene Bryant
		Niels Christian Nielsen
		John Marvin Wasson
	Coe College	Robert C. Leonard
		James E. Nichols
	Iowa Wesleyan College	John Aiken
		Gail Tuttle
	Wartburg College	Ruth Engelbrecht
		Carl Morgan
KANSAS	St. Mary College	Evelyn Feist
		Mary Alice Nugent
		Rachel Uehara
	Sterling College	Marion Lee Steinmetz
	University of Kansas City	John Leahy
		John Walters

<i>State</i>	<i>Institution</i>	<i>Student</i>
MISSISSIPPI	Millsaps College	Jean Calloway James Darby
MISSOURI	Tarkio College	Max Adams James Graham
MONTANA	College of Great Falls	Charlotte Sirola Roy Teddy
NEBRASKA	Creighton University	James Orville Emerson Francis Joseph Paluka
	Doane College	James Bastian Don Zeigler
	Duchesne College	Mary Margaret Chambers Camilla Hubka
	Hastings College	George Babilot Albert Cornelius John Gunnison Leonard Wilson
	University of Omaha	Lawrence Adkins Jerry Spain
NEW HAMPSHIRE	Rivier College	Louise Castonguay Claire Robitaille
	St. Anselm's College	Edward Harvey Hogan
NEW JERSEY	St. Peter's College	Howard J. Kuntz Hugh T. Reilly
LOUISIANA	Newcomb College	Ann Coleback Joan Kastler
MARYLAND	Goucher College	Eve Benesch Elinor May Hoffman Shirley Thiel
	University of Maryland	John Fischer Edgar P. Gwynn
	Washington College	Herman Gilbert Brant Louis Ritchie James Harvey Reed McConnell
MASSACHUSETTS	Smith College	Judith C. Baron Stefanie D. Blank
	Tufts College	Donald Roy Howard Nicholas Letsou Elizabeth Kobak
	University of Massachusetts	
MICHIGAN	Marygrove College	Johanna Bielecki
	University of Detroit	Kenneth F. Lewalski
MINNESOTA	Carleton College	Wilder Crane Robert Poole Thord Nilson Charles B. Pelzl
	Gustavus Adolphus College	Elsworth Buskirk Wallace Sue
	St. Olaf College	
NEW YORK	Bard College	Nathaniel I. Durlach
	College of the City of New York	Martin Hohausen Albert J. Moscovitz
	Fordham University	William J. Burke Joseph A. Cox Joseph L. Papay

<i>State</i>	<i>Institution</i>	<i>Student</i>
	Hartwick College	Owen L. Clute
		Henry Allen Graham
	Hunter College	Esther Balken
		Edith Aaranson Greenwald
		Robert Kerr
		Margaret Roston
	Manhattan College	Robert Beardsley
	Notre Dame College of	Constance Conifey
	Staten Island	Mary Ellen Hardenburgh
	Queens College	Sonja Bakke
		Ann Birstein
		William Green
	St. Bernardine of Siena	Leo George McGinnis
		John Arthur Vinett
	St. Bonaventure College	John F. Harter
		Ralph E. King, Jr.
NORTH CAROLINA	Davidson College	Charles Andrew Burrus, Jr.
	Duke University	Burl L. Noggle
		Jean Saunders
		Betty Gene Smith
	Guilford College	Carl Murray Cochrane
		Juliette Ann Raiford
	Johnson C. Smith	Theodore H. Goodin
	University	Clarence C. Lipscomb
	North Carolina College	Nathaniel Bond
		William Randolph Johnson
	Queens College	Ann deWolf Perry
		Alice Craven Reynolds
OHIO	Muskingum College	William Custer
		John Kovaly
	Otterbein College	Paul G. Craig
		E. Bernice Freymeyer
		John T. Prentice
	Wittenberg College	Theodore Eugene Cotterman
		Harry Richard Wren
PENNSYLVANIA	Albright College	Mary Lucena
		John McKenna
	Franklin and Marshall	Andrew Berky
	College	Richard P. Boenkenkamp
		Alton T. Butson
		Edwin Dunbaugh
		John R. Hughes
		Z. Allan Loss
		Thomas W. Martin
	Geneva College	Claire English
		Charles Ford
		Martha Irwin
	La Salle College	Joseph Moran
		Joseph O'Callaghan
	Lebanon Valley College	Luke Samuel Albert
		Alex Joseph Fehr
		David Harold Wallace
		Harold Elton Yingst
	Moravian College	Earl E. Deubler
		Albert E. H. Gaumer

	Pennsylvania College for Women	Nancy Taggart Gwosden
	Rosemont College	Madeleine Dransfield
	Thiel College	Hope Haggerty
	University of Scranton	William Clinefelter
		Roland Vitaletti
		Henry Zeshonsky
	Westminster College	Roger Hawk
		John McClure
		Statler Miller
SOUTH CAROLINA	Columbia College	Lorraine Burke
		Mary Hicklin
		Ruth Keaton
		Lura Deane Manning
SOUTH DAKOTA	Huron College	Herbert Jungemann
		Edith Siegrist
	Yankton College	Edwin Schneider
TENNESSEE	Fisk University	Mildred Evelyn Smith
		Joyce Rousara Whitley
	King College	Rollin Herbert Wallick
		William Hopewell Wood
	Knoxville College	Rachel M. Dalley
	Lincoln Memorial University	Henry F. Dickenson, Jr.
	Union University	William Keith
	University of the South	Warren F. Jones, Jr.
		Loren Benjamin Mead
TEXAS	Texas Technological College	Robert Burks
		Ann Colties
		William Trenfield
VIRGINIA	Hampton Institute	Leola Margaret Anderson
		George Edmonds
		Mildred Elizabeth Thompson
	Lynchburg College	Charles Matthias
		Richard Snavelly
	Madison College	Theodore Apgar
		Evelyn Tubbs
	Mary Baldwin College	Margaret Barrier
		Frances Elizabeth Lankford
	Sweet Briar College	Sarah Webb
VERMONT	Middlebury College	Robert Rauner
WEST VIRGINIA	Bethany College	Frank Showman, Jr.
		Richard Slavin
	West Virginia University	David Emerson Bosley
		Jack Lee Miller
WISCONSIN	Beloit College	Alfred Chilson Stimes
		Ronald Kenneth Wells
	Northland College	Bruce J. McDonald
		Kenneth Stroschane

AMONG THE COLLEGES

ADRIAN COLLEGE received a gift of \$30,000 from Mr. and Mrs. Ernest E. Tobias and Miss Ella Tobias of Adrian.

ALEGHENY COLLEGE was addressed by Paul G. Hoffman, Economic Cooperation Administrator, on "The American College and Human Understanding" at its convocation on April 14.

BALDWIN-WALLACE COLLEGE has approved plans for the construction of two new dormitories, one for men and one for women. Each will house 81 students. The total cost will be \$400,000.

BATES COLLEGE has received a gift of \$50,000 with which it will construct a new infirmary.

CENTRAL COLLEGE (Iowa) received \$40,581.52, or about \$79 per student, from the Reformed Church during the last year.

CORNELL COLLEGE (Iowa) has \$534,803 toward its College Centennial Fund. Gifts of alumni and friends collected since October amount to \$59,748. The Centennial will be held in 1953.

DENISON UNIVERSITY announces a promise of a gift of \$1,500,000 for a Hall of Music and Art by an anonymous donor, who has written the provision into a will. This will be the largest single gift ever made to the institution. The University has received a gift of \$18,500 to be added to the Samuel H. Brierly Memorial Scholarship Fund from anonymous donors, whose total gift now amounts to \$101,210.

GREENSBORO COLLEGE announces the erection of a new classroom and science building costing \$250,000 which should be ready by September. They are also letting the contract for a new library building which will be valued at about \$225,000.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY received gifts during the months of October, November and December, 1949, totaling \$1,149,493.07 for current support of educational and research programs.

IDAHO STATE COLLEGE has broken ground for a new \$700,000 liberal arts building.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY announces contributions of \$100,592 for 1949.

MARYLHURST COLLEGE announces the merger of Marylhurst College of Liberal Arts and Marylhurst Teachers College into a single institution.

ST. MARY'S COLLEGE (Indiana) is erecting a new Fine Arts Building which will cost a million dollars and include a main auditorium seating 1000, a Little Theatre and other accommodations for the departments of speech, art and music. There will be studios for piano, voice, violin and other instruments; also for painting, drawing, sculpture, ceramics and metal and wood crafts. Radio, recording and other audio-visual aids will be used.

TRANSYLVANIA COLLEGE announces an anonymous gift of \$100,000 toward a new college library.

WEST VIRGINIA WESLEYAN COLLEGE is constructing a new dormitory for men students.

WILLIAMS COLLEGE reached its goal of \$2,500,000 in its Building and Endowment Fund Drive in the last of December, 1949.

NEW COLLEGE PRESIDENTS

Atlantic Christian College, Wilson, North Carolina. D. Ray Lindley, Dean, Brite College of the Bible, Texas Christian University, Fort Worth.

College of Idaho, Caldwell, Idaho. Paul Pittman, Dean, San Jose State College, San Jose, California.

Delaware State College, Dover, Delaware. Oscar J. Chapman, Professor of Education, Morgan State College, Baltimore, Maryland.

Norwich University, Northfield, Vermont. Ernest N. Harmon.

St. Mary's College, Winona, Minnesota. J. Ambrose.

Savannah State College, Savannah, Georgia. William Kenneth Payne, Dean.

United States Naval Academy, Annapolis, Maryland. Harry W. Hill.

Washington and Jefferson College, Washington, Pennsylvania. Boyd C. Patterson, Head, Department of Mathematics, Hamilton College, Clinton, New York.